

People's Democratic Republic of Algeria
Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research
Ibn Khaldoun University of Tiaret
Faculty of Letters and Languages
Department of English



**Lexical Innovation among Younger Generation Speech from a
Gender -based Analysis: Case Study of Second Year BMD Students at
Tiaret University**

**A Dissertation Submitted to the Department of English in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Master's Degree in Linguistics**

Submitted by:

Miss. Hadjer Ahlem AOUIMEUR

Miss. Samira AMEUR MANSOUR

Supervised by:

Dr. Khaled BELARBI

Board of Examiners:

Dr. Mustapha TOUBIDA	Chairman	University of Tiaret
Dr. Khaled BELARBI	Supervisor	University of Tiaret
Dr .Asma LAKHDAR-TOUMI	Examiner	University of Tiaret

Dedication

We dedicate our work to our parents the source of power, inspiration and
tenderness.

Heartfelt thanks are sent to our teachers and close friends for their
Never-ending encouragement.

Ahlem & Samira

Acknowledgements

First of all, we would like to express our greatest gratitude to ALLAH for giving us such empowerment that provides an impetus of passion and perseverance to achieve our target.

A great appreciation is extended to our teacher and supervisor **Dr Khaled BELARBI** for his help, guidance and valuable advices thank you for all what did you for us.

Our sincere gratitude goes to all second year Tiaret university students who participated in this research and helped in the collection of the data, without them our research would not have been finished.

We extend our utmost gratitude to our sisters, brothers, and friends for their help, encouragement, and moral support.

We would also like to thank **Mr. sofiane Mahi** for his assistance, help and encouragement .We thank him for any sort of contribution he provided to complete this work.

Last but not least, we would like to thank in advance all the examiners who have kindly accepted to examine this dissertation.

Abstract

Within a sociolinguistics scope, lexical innovation among youth has been a subject that inspired researchers, in the sense that new words vary according to regional borders and social variables, mainly age and gender. The present work puts into examination youth innovative linguistic productions among Tiaret university students. The focus of this research is to investigate to what extent do teenagers coin new words and identify the motives leading to linguistic innovation. The findings from this research provide evidence that the act of using new words by youth in their daily conversations is done on purpose, i.e. it is due to a number of reasons as well as, the apparent role of social media and the globalized era which cannot be ignored in the diffusion of such words and phrases.

Key Words: Lexical innovation, Language change, Youth, Age, Gender, Neologism

Tables of Contents

Dedication	II
Acknowledgements	III
Abstract	IV
Table of Contents	V
List of Tables	IX
List of Figures	X
List of Acronyms	XI
List of Phonetic Symbols	XII
General Introduction	1

Chapter One: Literature Review

1.1. Introduction.....	3
1.2. Sociolinguistic Situation in Algeria	3
1.3. Language versus Dialect	4
1.3.1. Language Definition	4
1.3.1.1. Standard Language.....	4
1.3.2. Dialect	6
1.3.2.1. Regional Dialect	6
1.3.2.2. Social Dialect.....	6
1.4. Languages and Dialects in Algeria.....	7
1.4.1. Berber	7
1.4.2. Arabic	8

1.4.2.1. Classical Arabic	8
1.4.2.2. Modern Standard Arabic	8
1.4.2.3. Algerian Arabic	9
1.4.3. French	10
1.5. Lexical Innovation	10
1.6. Today's Algerian Linguistic Profile	11
1.6.1. Diglossia	12
1.6.2. Bilingualism	15
1.6.3. Code Switching	15
1.6.3.1. Types of Code Switching	16
1.6.4. Code Mixing	17
1.6.5. Borrowing	18
1.6.6. Multilingualism	19
1.6.7. Pidgin and Creole Languages	20
1.6.7.1. Pidgin Language	20
1.6.7.2. Creole Language	21
1.7. Conclusion	22

Chapter Two: Language Variation and Change

2.1. Introduction	23
.22. Language Change	23
2.2.1 .Types of Language	24
2.2.1.1. Lexical Change	24
2.2.1.2. Phonological Change	24
2.2.1.3. Grammatical Change	25

2.3. Linguistic Versus Social Variables	25
2.3.1. Linguistic Variables.....	25
2.3.2. Social Variables.....	26
2.3.2.1. Age	26
2.3.2.2. Gender	27
.23.2.2.1 Gender and Sex	27
2.3.2.2.2. Language and Gender	27
1- The difference Theory.....	29
2- The dominance Theory	29
2.4. Linguistic Innovation.....	30
2.5. Neologism.....	30
2.5.1 .Diffusion.....	32
2.6. Language Attitude	33
2.7. Language and Identity	34
2.8. Motives Leading to Innovation	35
2.8.1. Globalization	35
2.8.2. Mass Media	36
2.8.3. Culture Influence	37
2.9. Conclusion.....	37

Chapter Three: Methodology, Data Analysis and Interpretation

3.1. Introduction	38
3.2. Research Methodology	38
3.3. Instrumentation.....	38
3.3.1. Questionnaire	38

3.3.1.1. Administration of the Questionnaire	39
3.3.2. Word List.....	40
3.4. Pilot Study	40
3.5. Participants' Characteristics	40
3.6. Data Collection Methods	41
3.6.1. Quantitative Method.....	41
3.6.2. Qualitative Method	41
3.7. Data Analysis and Interpretation	42
3.7.1. Questionnaire Analysis and Interpretation	42
3.7.2. The Word List Analysis and Interpretation	52
3.7.3. Interpretation of the Findings	55
3.8 Conclusion.....	56
General Conclusion	57
Bibliography.....	59
Appendices	67

List of Tables

Table 1.1. Haugen’s Stages of Standardization	5
Table 1.2. The Relationship between Bilingualism and Diglossia	14
Table 3.1. Youth Awareness of Speech Difference Between Old and Young People.....	43
Table 3.2. Informants’ Examples of Innovated Words According to Gender.....	43
Table 3.3. Respondent’s Answers about Languages Used for Innovation.....	45
Table 3.4. Examples of Innovated Words Specific to Each Gender.....	47
Table 3.5. Youth Use of Innovation in Different Situations.....	48
Table 3.6. The Effect of Social Networks on Youth Innovations.....	49
Table 3.7. Informants’ Examples of Translated Words.....	51
Table 3.8. Females’ Answers.....	53
Table 3.9. Males’ Answers.....	54

List of Figures

Figure 2.1. Neologism Life Cycle	32
Figure 3.1. Informants' Age.....	42
Figure 3.2. Youth Awareness of Speech Difference between Old and Young People.....	43
Figure 3.3. Males and Females' Used Innovated Words.....	44
Figure 3.4. The Languages that offer Youth with Innovations.....	46
Figure 3.5. Youth Use of Innovation in Different Situations.....	49
Figure 3.6. The Effect of Social Networks on Youth Innovations.....	48
Figure 3.7. Informants' Possible Situations of Translation.....	50

List of Acronyms

AA	Algerian Arabic
CA	Classical Arabic
CS	Code switching
H	High variety
L	Low variety
MSA	Modern Standard Arabic
MC	Middle Class
LMC	Lower Middle Class

List of Phonetic Symbols

I. Vowels

Symbol	Example	Transcription	Translation
/a/	لحم	/lahm/	Meat
/a:/	نار	/na:r/	fire
/i/	قط	/qit/	Cat
/i:/	ليل	/li:l/	Night
/u/	كرسي	/kursi/	Chair
/u:/	حوت	/hu:t/	Whale
/ɒ/	فطور	/ftɒr/	Lunch

II. Consonants

Symbol	Arabic Letter	Example	Transcription	Translation
/ʔ/	أ	أنا	/ʔæna/	Me
/b/	ب	باب	/bæb/	Door
/t/	ت	تفاح	/tufa:h/	Apple
/θ/	ث	ثلج	/θaldʒ/	Snow
/dʒ/	ج	جمل	/dʒmal/	Camel
/h/	ح	حمام	/Hammaem/	Bath
/x/	خ	خبز	/xubz/	Bread
/d/	د	دم	/dam/	Blood
/ð/	ذ	ذئب	/ ðiʔb/	Wolf
/r/	ر	رحلة	/rihla/	Trip
/z/	ز	زهرة	/zahra/	Flower
/s/	س	سكر	/sɒkkar/	Sugar
/ʃ/	ش	شمس	/ ʃams/	Sun
/ʂ /	ص	صائم	/ʂa: jm/	Fasting
/ð/	ض	ظل	/ ðill/	Shadow
/t/	ط	طائر	/ t a:ir/	Bird
/ʕ/	ع	عين	/ʕajn/	Eye
/ɣ /	غ	غرب	/ɣarb/	West
/f/	ف	فيل	/f i:l/	Elephant
/q/	ق	قديم	/qdi:m/	Old
/k/	ك	كلب	/Kalb/	Dog
/l/	ل	لسان	/lsa:n/	Tongue
/m/	م	مدينة	/mdi:na/	Town
/n/	ن	نحلة	/nahla/	Bee
/h/	هـ	هو	/huwa/	He
/w/	و	وجه	/wazh/	Face
/J/	ي	يوم	/Jawm/	Day

General Introduction

General Introduction

Each language has its own characteristics and reflects the society and the groups that use it. Through time, every society undergoes great changes which influence its language. Due to this change, many examples of vocabulary items used by teenagers and young adults often seem to need 'translation' for older age groups. So, communication between generations of people is not always easy; while people of older generations tend to be conservative, younger ones do their best to be innovative in style, behaviour, dressing and language as well.

As the subject of language is worth studying, its variation and change have for many years prompted interest and sociolinguists in their investigations attempt to explain the factors and motivations involved in the process of language change. Among the various factors that affect language change, age has often been studied as the one that locates people in the society and causes language variation.

The present research work takes place at Tiaret university taking second year students as a sample. This research work has the scope of investigating the innovation of new lexical terms by youth and identifying the agents that support the increasing of this phenomenon. Besides, it attempts to shed some light on the reasons that make young adults and teenagers coin new words. Thus, three research questions are raised as follows:

1. What makes young adults and teenagers coin new words in their speech?
2. Is lexical innovation a gender-related phenomenon? What gender contributes most in language change?
3. What are the factors that support these innovations?

In an attempt to answer these research questions. The following hypotheses were proposed:

1. Young speakers coin new words to seem fashionable and to cope with today's globalized world.
2. Lexical innovation is a gender-related phenomenon in the sense that boys coin more new words than girls.

3. Social networks may be seen among the factors that support innovations like *facebook, twitter...* or the mass media and others.

This extended research consists of three chapters. The first chapter provides a review of the relevant literature. First, it includes the sociolinguistic situation in Algeria. Second, a distinction between language and dialect with their definitions is made. Then, we will be talking about the linguistic composition of Algeria including the different languages and varieties spoken in the country. Finally, this chapter mentions a number of outcomes resulting from the contact between those languages.

The second chapter deals with language variation and language change exploring these in correlation with social factors such as age and gender as the main focus of this research. Moreover, it deals with linguistic innovation, neologism, language attitudes and identity as different sections. At last, this chapter gives a number of motives leading to linguistic innovation.

The third chapter stands as the practical phase of this work providing a detailed description of the methods used in this study: the sampling, the instrumentation and the procedures used. The chapter ends with an interpretation of the data collected to reach answers to the research questions and to validate the hypotheses.

Chapter One

1.1. Introduction

Language is essentially a means of communication among individuals of society but at the same time it varies at different levels and due to many factors. The present chapter tends, first, to give a glance at the sociolinguistics situation of Algeria by naming the various invaders who settled in this land. After this step, it is necessary to shed some light on the difference between language and dialect, and then, we move to the Algerian linguistic panorama; Arabic, French in addition to Berber. The following step is an attempt to provide many definitions of those new words coined by youngsters considered as lexical innovation. Moving from general to specific obstruction, the presence of different languages contributed in the creation of particular sociolinguistic situation which gave birth to different concepts such as diglossia, code switching, borrowing, bilingualism and multilingualism. At final stage, we bid to throw light on the important fact about pidgin and creole theories.

1.2. Sociolinguistic Situation in Algeria

From the early ages, North Africa had covered different cultures and civilizations among them the Roman, the Phoenician and the Carthaginian ones. Thus, Algeria in particular was a country of interest of many invasions. The Berber tribes were the first who stabilized in Algeria lands as being the original inhabitants of Algeria. Centuries later, the Carthaginians who (before known as the Phoenicians) as traders reached in North Africa coast around 900 BC but they settled in Algeria lands and established the Cartage civilization in around 800 BC. The Carthaginians really proved their presence in Algeria by using the Punic language through their Punic civilization. Yet, the Carthaginians were declared their successive defeats by the Roman in the Punic war.

Next, the coming of Vandals (who known as a Germanic tribe) and Byzantines played a vital role in this historical period. The former put a stop to the Roman role as well as the latter terminated the vandals domination and they remained in Algeria for more than one century till the arrival of the Arabs and the introduction of the Arabic language and Islam.

In the late 15th century, Spain settled down in some coastal cities of Algeria for nearly two centuries. Spain dominated different places in Algeria like Mersa el Kebir in

1505, Tlemcen, Mostaganem and the West of Algeria in 1516. This clarifies why in Oran, for instance, many words borrowed from Spanish language were used by Oranian people. The Turkish also marked their presence in Algeria through their continuance in its print on the linguistic profile of Algeria, aside from some borrowed words like /babu:r / ‘boat’ in English), [babu:ʃ] ‘slippers’ in English.

Since the settlement of different civilizations in Algeria, the inhabitants discovered different languages in addition to the North African dialects. This truth has made of a Algeria multilingual country.

1.3. Language versus Dialect

The distinction between language and dialect is one of the difficult issues in sociolinguistics. The following two sections are dedicated to describing concepts of language and dialects and to what extent these are un/interrelated.

1.3.1. Language Definition

Language is a system of communication between people and it is the only thing that distinguishes human beings from animals.

Many definitions of language have been proposed over time, as well as the main concept can be taken from these definitions is that language is the basic medium of communication and expression of human thoughts, feelings, and emotions that is based on a system of signs. In this respect, Edward Sapir (1921:8) states: “**Language is purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols**”. (Quoted in Lyons, 198:3).

On the other hand, language has many different aspects; it can be viewed as a social fact, psychological state and a set of structures. Also behaviourists define language as a learned behaviour involving a stimulus and response (Ormrod, 1995). They often refer to language as a verbal behaviour, which is language that includes gestures and body movements, as well as spoken words (Pierce and Eplin, 1995).

1.3.1.1. Standard Language

A standard language is a variety of language that is used in formal settings including governments, schools, media and for international communication, it is also

taught to foreigners. For example, the English language has different standard varieties in the world like North American English, Australian English, and Indian Englishetc.

However, these standard varieties may have some differences in pronunciation and grammar.

The standard variety is prestigious, and it has a written form. In this vein, Holmes (2001:76) states: **“the standard variety is generally written and has undergone a degree of regularization and codification. That is, the standard variety has a written form and is regarded as a more correct and socially accepted than other varieties.”**

As in Algeria, Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) is the variety that considered as more prestigious since it is used in education and official settings than the other dialects used in daily life communication.

Also, Weinreich (1945:13) supports this idea when he says: **“a language is a dialect with an army and a navy.”**

The process of standardization involves four stages:

1. Selection: A particular variety of language has to be selected from several varieties, because selection is the easiest solution to develop a variety of language into a standard.
2. Codification: At this stage, the selected variety needs to be codified i.e., the norms of the pronunciation, the grammatical rules, use etc., set in books and dictionaries come to be seen by people as the only correct form that is learned and used .
3. Elaboration: Once the standard language is codified, it must be able to discharge including abstract and intellectual functions which are developed where it lacks resources.
4. Acceptance: the selected variety should be accepted within the population as the variety of the same community.

Haugen (1972:110) summarizes the four stages in the form of the following table

	form	Function
Society	Selection	Acceptance
Language	Codification	Elaboration

Table 1.1 Haugen’s Stages of Standardization

1.3.2. Dialect

A dialect is viewed by linguists as a variety of language, which is characterized from other dialects of the same language by systematic differences pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary.

According to Trudgill (1992:23) a dialect: **“is a variety of language which differs grammatically, phonologically and lexically from other varieties”**. In the same sense, Edwards (2009:63) adds: **“a dialect is a variety of language that differs from others along three dimensions: vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation (accent)”**; **therefore, as different forms of the same language, dialects are valued since they “are potentially functionally equivalent” (ibid: 60).**

Linguistically speaking, dialects are taught as varieties of the same language at three levels, pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary, they are simply different but they are usually mutually intelligible. Rather, each individual speaks his own language variety that is called an idiolect. Dialects are discussed in terms of social and regional varieties.

1.3.2.1. Regional Dialect

A regional dialect is the variety of language spoken in a particular geographical area. For Romaine (2000:2), regional dialects tell **“[...] where we come from”**. It is concerned with the systematic differences in pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary.

In this vein, Chambers and Trudgill (2004: 5) maintain that **“If we travel from one village, in a particular direction, we notice linguistic differences which distinguish one village from another. Sometimes these differences will be larger, sometimes smaller, but they will be cumulative. The further we get from our starting point, the larger the differences will become.”**

Accordingly, a regional dialect shows that the difference between distant places differ from each other, sometimes it will be less from their neighbours and large from distant varieties.

1.3.2.2. Social Dialect

Social dialect or sociolect is a variety of language which is originated among social groups according to social factors such as social class, education, religion and ethnicity. Accordingly, Yule (1935: 190) points out that social dialects are **“...varieties of language**

used by groups defined according to class, education, occupation, age, sex, and a number of other social parameters”.

A social dialect is analyzed through a recorded speech from different social backgrounds, an example of that is Yinglish (a variety of English composed of Yiddish + English) used by Yinglish speakers who have settled in America.

To sum up, it is difficult to argue with the propositions that speech variation should not be based on just social and regional dialects but the acceptance of their validity as source of complexity.

.14. Languages and Dialects in Algeria

Algeria is one among many nations, which is emerging, but facing linguistic problems. It cannot be denied; However, that the history of Algeria is closely attached with some foreign languages which have come through the coexistence of various civilizations in the North African lands. Algeria has been considered as a multilingual society due to the existence of different languages; Berber, Arabic and French.

1.4.1. Berber

Berber or Tamazight is spoken among a great number of African countries such as: Mali, Niger, Mauritania, Morocco and Algeria (Brahimi.F 2000).

Oakes (2008:18) states: “**about 20% of the Algerian population speaks Berber as the first language, and many of those do not use Arabic at all, preferring French as their second language**”. That is to say Berber is mastered by 20 % of the Algerians as their native language and the majority of them used French as a second language instead of using Arabic language.

There are different Berber varieties that can be distinguished in Algeria:

- Kabylie: spoken in Kabylia, Mountains East of Algeria (Tizi Ouzou, Bejaia).
- Chaouia: used in the Aures mountains and it covers some parts in Biskra, Batna, Ain Mila.
- Mozabite or Mozabi: is basically spoken in Beni Mzab (Ghardaia).
- Tamashekt or Tashelhit: this variety used in south western of Algeria.
- Targui: is another variety spoken in the south of Algeria (Tamanrasset).

These Berber varieties use some borrowed words from Arabic, other words from Berber varieties are used in Algerian dialect like [dʒrana] to mean a Frog, [shlærəm] to mean a Mustache and [karmos] to mean a fig.

Baker and Jones (1998:335) say “**Berber has received some government support. Two newspapers in Berber exist and there is news in Berber on television twice a day. Also cultural societies and centres have been established to promote the teaching and popularization of the Berber language and culture**”. In other words, Berber has been given the status of a national Algerian language in 2002; it is used in Media and Newspapers.

1.4.2. Arabic

Arabic is from a Semitic origin and the official language of more than 280 million people, most of them live in the Middle East and North Africa. It is the result of the Islamic-Arabic expansion in Algeria as Rouzdia (1991) states: “ **the Arabic language and Islam are inseparable. Arabic has a privileged position as it is the language of the Koran and the prophet and the shared language of all Muslims in the world**”. That is to say, there is a strong link between the relation of the Arabic and the Koran to the prophet Mohamed (peace be upon him).

Diglossically speaking, There are three main varieties which exist in Algeria: Classical Arabic (CA), Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) and Algerian Arabic (AA).

1.4.2.1. Classical Arabic

Classical Arabic (CA) is defined as the language of Koran; it is used in reading and reciting the Islamic holy book. It is also used in the earliest literature especially in the pre-Islamic poetry. Moreover, CA is used by all Muslims for prayer regardless of their native language. Houghton and Mifflin (1994:412) state that: “**Classical Arabic is used by approximately one billion Muslims for prayer and scholarly religious discourse.**”

1.4.2.2. Modern Standard Arabic

Modern Standard Arabic is referred to as MSA (Alfus’ha in Arabic), it is the variety of Arabic that has emerged in the 19c to simplify CA. Holes (2004:5) defined MSA as: “**the modern descendent of classical Arabic, unchanged in the essentials of its syntax but very much changed and still changing in its vocabulary and phraseology.**”

MSA is classified as a modern version of Classical Arabic with addition from foreign languages that are equivalent to the scientific needs and technological advancement. In that Ennaji (1991:9) states that: **“Modern Standard Arabic is standardized and codified to the extent that it can be understood by different Arabic speakers in the Maghreb and in the Arab world at large, it has the characteristics of a modern language serving as the vehicle of a universal culture.”** So, MSA is the language of all the Arab countries as a common language and the understandable means of communication within the Arab world. MSA is also used in formal settings as government, schools, media, and newspapers.

1.4.2.3. Algerian Arabic

Algerian Arabic is also called AA or ‘Darija’. It is the mother tongue of the majority of the Algerian population and it refers to the low spoken variety used in everyday-life situations. Taleb Ibrahimi (1995:33) states: **“these Arabic dialects constitute the mother tongue of the majority of the Algerian people (at least for those who are originally Arabic speakers). It is also considered as the language of the first socialization of the basic community.”**¹

According to Kaye (1970: 67), AA refers to the colloquial language known as *darija* or *lahja*: **“The colloquial varieties number in the hundreds, being spoken and not written, they are distinguishable from classical Arabic as a result of a grammatical simplification in structure with fewer grammatical categories.”** That is to say, AA is unwritten; it is used only in oral form to simplify the morphological and syntactic rules of the written Arabic. Most of AA vocabulary has Arabic origin with many borrowed words mainly from Berber, French, Turkish, and Spanish (Boucherit 2002).

¹ The original text: “Ces dialectes arabes constituent la langue maternelle de la majorité du peuple Algérien (du moins pour les arabophone d’origine), la première socialisation de la communauté de base”. Taleb Ibrahimi (1995 :33)

1.4.3. French

The French language was imposed as the only official language in Algeria during the colonial period and it is still widely used in education, media and administration. In education, it is taught in primary schools and in higher education as scientific fields like medicine. There are magazines, newspapers such as 'El Watan'; 'Le Quotidien' etc printed in French and also TV channels.

In that respect, Baker and Jones (1998:335) state that: "French still enjoys a high status in Algeria. It is a major foreign language and is still widely read and spoken by many educated Algerians. National radio has a French station. The only TV channel is in Arabic with some French material. The majority of newspapers and magazines are in French. French is widely used in higher education; scientific material in school and university text books is almost exclusively in French."

The French language is a part of the Algerian speakers' daily- life communications, it plays an important role in the community in different domains and it still regarded as the language of modernity and development.

1.5. Lexical Innovation

The vocabulary of any language is the most liable to rapid change. One can debate changes that take place in language or linguistic changes. Only after prevalence or embracing some innovations, the way of new linguistic facts is found into a language system because of changes in society. Innovations take place from the existing patterns in the language in which conversations occur.

Lexical innovation characterizes "**words created to satisfactorily explicate current ideas or events in society**" (Aboh 2013:131). Accordingly, a lexical innovation can imply the creation of a new lexical unit, the modification of the root or of the semantic structure of the word in the language.

As mentioned above, our research focuses on lexical innovation or lexical neology. Specifically speaking, we are interested in the effect that gender variable may have on such lexical innovation. Boulanger (1988) writes that in late 1970s and early 1980, the word neology could be defined in several various ways:

- a) The process of creating new lexical units (general or terminological) by means of common linguistic creativity mechanisms found in a given language, whether consciously or unconsciously.
- b) The theoretical and applied study of lexical innovation, either words formation methods (derivation, compounding, phrasing, etc.), meaning acquisition, recognition criteria, acceptability or spread of neologisms, relations between normalization or even social or socio-professional inclusion of new lexis.
- c) The institutional activity undertaken to organize, plan, and systematically collect, record, spread, and introduce lexical innovation within the framework of a specific linguistic policy.
- d) The work of indentifying the specialized sectors that require considerable lexical innovation to fill gaps in relevant vocabulary. All these activity spheres are to varying extents, abundant producers of neologisms.
- e) The relation between novel words and dictionaries, especially the role of the dictionary as a filter for the recognition of neologisms and the analysis of the treatment of neology in dictionaries.

In this research, we depend on lexical neology, that is, on the appearance of new words or lexical neologisms. Along the same lines, authors like Guilbert (1975) and Sablayrolles (2003) agree on the mentioned definitions when suggesting that neology refers to, on one hand, the production of lexical units (either with the appearance of a new signifier or a new meaning for an existing word of the language) or, on the other hand, the linguistic component that studies the creation of these new units.

1.6. Today's Algerian Linguistic Profile

Research into the field of languages contact in Algeria has started as a part of a widest study. Contact between people speaking different languages can have a broad variety of outcomes. As various tongues and various cultures meet, this difference engenders a number of phenomena. Since this research work is undertaken in Algeria, the Algerian current linguistic profile is enumerated in the followings.

1.6.1. Diglossia

Diglossia is a sociolinguistic phenomenon that refers to a situation where two varieties of one language used in the same speech community. The first introduction of the word ‘diglossia’ used by the French linguist ‘William Marçais’ in 1930, he spoke about the use of two varieties of Arabic in different settings. He defines ‘la diglossie’ (diglossia) as: **“The Arabic language appears under two perceptibly different aspects: 1) A literary language so called written Arabic, or regular, or literal, or classical; the only one that has always and everywhere been written in the past; the only one in which today are written literary or scientific works, newspaper articles, judiciary acts, private letters, in a word everything that is written, but which, exactly as it is has perhaps never been spoken anywhere and which in any case is not spoken now anywhere; 2) Spoken idioms, patois....none of which has ever been written ... but which everywhere and perhaps for a many time are the only language of conversation in all popular and cultured circles”** (Marçais, William., 1930:401)².

Marçais in his definition did not mention the specialized functions of each variety when he stated that the Arabic language is presented in two different aspects: literary language and spoken dialects.

Later on, the term ‘diglossia’ has been introduced in the English language by ‘Charles Ferguson’ (1959) in his article ‘Diglossia’. He used this concept to describe the sociolinguistic situation of Arabic countries as well as in the German, the Greek and the Haitian communities.

²The English translation of this quotation is taken from Bouamrane (1986:2). The original text reads as follows:

“ La diglossie arabe se présente à nous sur deux aspects sensiblement différents :1) une langue littéraire, arabe écrite ou régulière ou littérale, ou classique, qui a été partout et toujours écrite dans le passé dans laquelle seul aujourd’hui sont rédigés les ouvrages littéraires ou scientifiques, les articles de presse, les actes judiciaires, les lettres privées, bref, tout ce qui est écrit, mais pas exactement telle qu’elle se présente à nous n’a peut-être jamais été parlée nulle part. 2) les idiomes parlés, des patois ... dont aucun n’a jamais été écrit mais qui, partout, et peut-être depuis longtemps, (sont) la seule langue de la conversation dans les milieux populaires et cultivés ”.

Ferguson (1959:336) defines diglossia as: **“A relatively stable language situation in which, in addition to the primary dialects of the language (which may include a standard or regional standards), there is a very divergent, highly codified (often grammatically more complex) superposed variety, the vehicle of a large and respected body of written literature, either of an earlier period or in another speech community, which is learned largely by formal education and is used for the most written and formal spoken purposes but is not used by any sector of the community for ordinary conversation”.**

The diglossic situation outlined by Ferguson was concerned with speech community, where there are two varieties of the same language; one is the High (H) which used in formal situations such as government and education, and the other is the Low (L) variety is used in informal situations as family and friendship situations. It represents CA and AA in the case of Algeria.

Ferguson has stated nine criteria to characterize the diglossic phenomenon:

- 1. Function:** the High and Low varieties are used for different functions because of the different specific domains; H variety is used in formal situations and L variety is used in informal situations. In Algeria, the CA used mainly in official settings as in media and education and AA is used in every day conversation.
- 2. Prestige:** the High variety is regarded as the prestigious variety. In the Algerian situation Algerians have positive attitudes toward CA.
- 3. Literary Heritage:** According to Ferguson, the written literature is in the H variety while the L variety is used only orally. In Algeria the CA is used in written form and the AA is used only in oral form.
- 4. Acquisition:** In most diglossic languages, the L variety is acquired first; it is considered as the mother tongue, whereas the H variety is learned at school, as in Algeria; children acquire AA at home and learn CA at school.
- 5. Standardization:** For Ferguson, the H variety is standardized, it has dictionaries and grammar books, whereas the L variety is not standardized, it is full of variations in vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary.
- 6. Stability:** According to Ferguson, diglossia is stable; it does not change through history.

7. Grammar: The H variety has a complex grammar than the grammar of L variety; H variety has grammatical categories that are clearly absent in L variety.

8. Lexicon: One variety lacks some vocabulary items that are used in the other variety and vice-versa. Like in Algeria the verb [wajəda] وجد 'to find' in English occurs in the H variety and is never found in an informal conversation and [sa:b] is not used in H-V, also with the verb [ðəhæba] ذهب 'to go' is used in H variety whereas in L-V it is used [ra:h] راح to mean 'he/she went'.

9. Phonology: The two varieties share the same phonological systems, but HV is special subset of the L-V inventory.

Ferguson's concept of diglossia has been developed by Fishman; he has chosen to extend the notion of diglossia to encompass even a situation where H and L are not varieties of the same language, but two different languages (Deneire, 2004).

Fishman (1967a) makes a combination between bilingualism and diglossia; he recognizes four language situations where bilingualism and diglossia may exist together or without each other.

The following table summarizes the relationship between diglossia and bilingualism:

Diglossia	Bilingualism
1 Diglossia and bilingualism 3	3 Bilingualism without diglossia
2 Diglossia without bilingualism	4 Neither bilingualism nor diglossia

Table .12. The Relationship between Bilingualism and Diglossia

For instance, in the case of Algeria, Modern Standard Arabic and French are considered as High variety since they used in education and official domains, while AA and Berber are considered as Low variety used in everyday communication.

1.6.2. Bilingualism

Bilingualism, in its broader sense, refers the ability of speaking two languages. In other words, it is the alternate usage of two languages and the included person is called “bilingual” (Weinreich, 1968).

Such linguistic phenomenon is defined in different ways by different scholars. On one hand, some assume that bilingualism is the perfect mastery of two languages. In this sense, Bloomfield (1933:55) considers bilingualism as: “the native like control of two languages”. In the same vein, Haugen (1953:07) defines bilingualism as “the capability to produce complete meaningful utterance in the other language”.

Speaking more than one language becomes a natural phenomenon due to language contact. According to this framework, Milroy and Muysken (1995:01) argue that: “the phenomenon of language revival and the economically motivated migration of people, have led to wide spread of bilingualism in the modern world”.

In Algerian situation, this latter is characterized by the co-existence of two unconnected languages; Arabic with its three varieties MSA, CA and AA and French. In addition, the use of Berber in some areas refers to a multilingual society. The crucial point here, due to the existence of three languages in Algeria, a multilingual society does not mean that all the Algerians master the three languages. In this situation, Wardhaugh (2006:96) states “people who are bilingual or multilingual do not necessary have exactly the same abilities in the languages (or varieties) in fact that kind of parity may be exceptional”.

Bilingualism in Algeria exists because of the long period of French colonization within the existence of Arabic. According to Mouhadjer (2004), Algerian bilingualism is an outcome of historical, the educational strategy and social specificity. Bilingualism emerges in the country because of the teaching of French in schools a long side with Arabic.

1.6.3. Code Switching

The existence of two or more different languages makes speakers repeatedly switch from one language to another code within the same sentence. In this framework, Sridehar (1956:56) argues that “**when two or more languages exist in community, speakers**

switch from one language to another. This phenomenon is known as a code switching”.

In sociolinguistics, the term “Code Switching” has been defined in different ways by different scholars. According to Gumperz (1982:59) code switching is **“the juxtaposition within the same speech exchanges of passages belonging to different grammatical systems.”** Accordingly, code switching does not include only languages but also dialects of the same language. In the same vein Trudgill (1996:16) defines it as being **“the process whereby bilingual or dialectal speakers switch back and forth between one language or dialect and another within the same conversation.”**

In another words, code switching is the alternative use of words that are very often used among bilinguals who switch between their two languages in the same conversation. Myer Scotton (1993:11) defines the term code switching as **“the alternation of linguistic varieties within the same conversation”**.

To apply such common phenomenon in the Algerian context, it is showed that the existence of French in Algeria for a long time contributes in making its people switch AA and French or Berber and French. The conversation may begin with French and finishes with the native language either AA or Berber or vice versa, such as:

[ranɪ rajah] la chambre [natfaraʒ] match

Which means: “I am going to the room to watch the match”

In addition to that mastering of both languages and switching between them in the middle of a conversation or either a sentence, it does not refer to the lack of competence but this occurs when people master more than one language and produce, in conversation with other speakers.

1.6.3.1. Types of Code Switching

Poplack (1980) has put three types of code switching:

A-Extra-sentential code switching: it depends on the inclusion of a tag as an essential part (I mean, you know, or right?) from one language into a sentence which has another meaning in other language. Such situation exists in Algeria, when the conversation is in AA and unexpectedly the speaker begins a French tag such as:

[raninasanak,d'accord]

In English is: "I am waiting for you okey"

b-Inter-sentential code switching: in this type switching between language varieties occurs as the result one is in one language and the other being in another language, it takes place in clause or sentence boundary. Such as:

[makdartʃ nɔ:d], *c'est dommage*.

In English is: "I could not wake up, it is a pity."

In this framework, Myer Scotton (1993:3) writes: "**Inter sentential code switching involves switches from one language to the other between sentences: a whole sentence (or more than one sentence) is reduced in one language before there is a switch to another language in use in the conversation.**"

C-Intra-sentential code switching: According to Myer Scotton (ibid), this type is found within the same sentence or sentence fragment which includes elements from both languages. For example:

[maʔandakʃ] droit [tahdar mʔaja bhad] la façon.

In English: "You do not have the right to talk to me in this way."

1.6.4. Code Mixing

Code mixing to some extent varies than code switching, but it is difficult to differentiate between them. Code mixing happens when people mix between two different languages or language varieties in speech. We speak about code mixing when some words or items are taken from one variety and the other are taken from the other language and are mixed together within the same conversation. Sometimes, a mixed code can serve as a sign of higher social prestige, of professional status or religious identity.

1.6.5. Borrowing

Sometimes in daily life conversations, speakers need to use words from other languages in order to explain, describe or even to clarify ideas that have no equivalent words in their mother tongue, this phenomenon is called ‘borrowing’.

Hornboy (2005: 69) defined borrowing as **“a word, a phrase or an idea that sb [some body] has taken from another person’s work or from another language and is used in their own”**. According to Hudson (1996:55) stated that **“... borrowing involves mixing the systems themselves, because an item is ‘borrowed’ from one language to become part of another language”**.

Borrowing requires mixing the systems of the two languages because one language will determine which words can be borrowed from the other language. For instance, the word راديو (Radio) and باريس (Paris) are French words but they are found in Arabic dictionaries.

Haugen (1956) classifies three types of borrowing. The first type is ‘Loan words’ which are adopted phonologically and morphologically. In other words they are pronounced and used grammatically as if they were parts of the native language. In Algerian Arabic (AA) words from the French language are considered as Arabic words. For example; words like ‘la cuisine’ /kozina/ (kitchen), ‘la classe’ /klassa/ (classroom), ‘la fourchette’ /farʃita/ (fork). The second type is ‘Loan blends’. In Algerian Arabic, a single noun phrase contains two parts: one is in Arabic and the second in French like, a piece of cake /fwija gato/. The third type is ‘Loan shift’ is the process of taking word from the native language and extending it meaning into the other. According to Clyne (1967) ‘Loan shift’ occurs when there are greater similarities between two languages at the level of semantics and phonetics. However this type is not found in Algerian Arabic .

Cultural borrowing is the act of taking an item from another culture without changing its name since it does not exist in the native culture (Herbert 2001). He exemplifies also cultural borrowing as English borrowed ‘thug’ from Hindi, ‘sherry’ from Spanish, and ‘sauna’ from Finnish. According to him, English began with Germanic vocabulary, but the enormous numbers of words which are borrowed are attributed to historical factors. The case of Algeria is a good example of that in the sense that the French language enormously affected AA.

In addition, there are other factors that encourage borrowing like lexical borrowing which occur to fill gaps of vocabulary or lexical need in the recipient language. In Algeria, many vocabulary items are introduced as cultural borrowing such as: internet, computer and other types of social network, Gmail, facebook, twitter, etc.

The social value is another factor which related to the dominant language in a society. So, speakers will usually tend to borrow words from the dominant language (Romaine, 1989).

In the Algerian situation, French is used in the daily life of Algerian speakers as a result of the contact with French during the colonial period. Thus, many words become part of Algerian Arabic (AA) such as /garage/, /video/, / portable/ ...etc. However, not all Algerian borrowed words are taken from French, there are other borrowed words from other languages like /batata/ , /borrequo/ from Spanish , / balak/ from Turkish, fast food , fifty fifty from English and so on .

Sometimes, borrowing can introduce structural innovations into a language when the speakers of a particular language may use their own native language to coin new words.

1.6.6. Multilingualism

Multilingualism is a sociolinguistic phenomenon in where there is a co-existence of more than two languages within the same speech community. Trudgill (1992:13) states: **“many sociolinguistics use the term ‘bilingualism’ to refer to individuals, even if they are trilingual, quadrilingual, etc., and reserve the term multilingualism for nations or societies, even if only two languages are involved”**. This means that multilingualism is a complex phenomenon that can be studied from different perspectives such as linguistics and sociolinguistics.

The case of the sociolinguistic situation in Algeria which is due to the conflicting linguistic interplay between two or more languages when they get in contact: bilingualism, code switching, and diglossia. This is means that multilingualism in Algeria is studied in the existing linguistic varieties namely the interplay between Arabic, Berber and French.

Romaine (2003) claimed that **“experts know that multilingualism is not the aberration or minority phenomenon many English speakers suppose it to be. It is, on**

the contrary, a normal and remarkable necessity for the majority of the world's population”.

We could sum up, that it is a necessity to all the speakers over the world to be multilinguals.

1.6.7. Pidgin and Creole languages

Pidgin and Creole are two emerging languages in need of communication among people who don't have single language to use (Jeff: 2008).

1.6.7.1. Pidgin Language

A pidgin is a simplified language which is developed by two or more groups of people who do not have a common language to communicate in the same geographical area, it has no native speakers and it is also used as a contact language for communication purposes such as trade. Pidgin was formed because of political, social and economical reasons.

According to Sarah Thomason (2001:159): **“a pidgin is a language that arises in new contact situations involving more than two languages”**. That is, no single language is widely known among the groups in contact and they need to communicate regularly, but for limited purposes, such as trade. For some combination of social, economic and political reasons, they do not learn each other's languages, but instead develop a pidgin with vocabulary drawn typically (though not always) from one of the languages in contact.

Pidgins languages come into existence through colonization or trade in sea coasts, for instance, developed as languages of trade where traders use different colonial languages such as: Portuguese, Spanish, or English and the Indians, Chinese, Africans or American Indians. They were trading with (spolsky: 1998). So, pidgins were created as a language of trade from Spanish, English, Portuguese, Chinese and Indians because of their power on colonies.

Pidgins have less linguistic material than non pidgin languages – fewer words, limited grammatical and stylistic resources in syntax and discourse (Sarah G Thomason: 2001). Pidgins have a simplified grammar structure and a small number of vocabulary. They can also be structured differently as there is no inflection for words, marks of plural,

or to signal the tense of the verb, and no affixes to mark gender as in Spanish and Italian (Holmes,2001).

It is obvious that there always has to be a superior and dominant language which most of the vocabulary of a pidgin is borrowed from (Versteegh, 2008).

The socially- dominant language is called the ‘superstate language’ from where vocabulary is taken, and the language that tends to have a greater impact on grammar is called the ‘substrate language’.

Generally, pidgin languages are not a full languages since they are created only on the purpose of communicating and understanding each other. In Algeria, for example, Chinese workers create a new language (pidgin language) that enables them to communicate with Algerian people, this pidgin language is a combination of their mother tongue and Algerian Arabic (AA).

1.6.7.2. Creole Language

A Creole is a language that developed from pidgin, most of languages that are named pidgins became now creoles. (Holmes, 2001; Crystal,2003) say: **“a Creole is a pidgin language which developed into a Creole one unlike pidgin, Creole has native speakers, it is the native language of a speech community and the first language to children of that community where it has been spoken”**. That is to say, creole is the mother tongue of those children.

Holmes (1992:95) says that: **“A creole is a pidgin which has expanded in structure and vocabulary to express the range of meanings and serve the range of functions required of a first language. We can understand that creole has a grammatically structured form and a larger number of vocabularies”**.

Todd (1974:33) also defined Creole this way **“a Creole arises when pidgin becomes the mother tongue of a speech community”**. To illustrate this point, we have this example: Africans of diverse ethno-linguistic groups were brought by the Europeans from the 17th to the 19th centuries, to colonies in the new world and work together on sugar plantations, for sure the first generation of the Africans do not have a common language between them, they just create a pidgin language. So the second generation (the

children) born in the new world have acquired this pidgin language and it become a primary language to them. The same thing is observed with Algerian children born in France, where they meet with a foreign language along with the mother tongue they come up with.

1.7. Conclusion

As a conclusion, the foregoing chapter has been an attempt to overview the sociolinguistic situation of Algeria which is very complex. There are many linguistic varieties or many languages. Each variety is the reflection of a given origin (Arabic, Berber or French). Then, we have moved to the different definitions of the concept of lexical innovation that has been provided by different linguists. The end of this chapter tends to give a brief explanation of the different phenomena existing in the country. The next chapter will be devoted to the study of language variation and change in addition to the linguistic and social variables that influence language, linguistic innovation and the motives leading to linguistic innovation.

Chapter Two

1. Introduction

The present chapter is an attempt to provide an overall explanation of the process of lexical innovation and the new words coined by youngsters considered as innovated patterns. As we are interested in lexical variation and language change among young people, in this theoretical chapter we shall deal at first hand with language change explaining some basic concepts in relation to language. Second, we shed some light on sociolinguistic concepts such as age and gender and finally we try to focus on linguistic innovation, neologism, their diffusion and motives leading to linguistic innovation as a phenomenon.

2. Language Change

Language change is the main principal concern of historical linguistics which classifies, describes and explains the linguistic changes. It is always changing, evolving, and adapting the needs of its users, i.e. the scientific and technological advancement require new words to refer to new experiences and products. People are not conscious about this change since the way we use the language is not easily apparent or obvious in day-to-day communication. As De Saussure (1915/1959:77) states: **“time changes all things; there is no reason why language should escape this universal law”**. Thus language is not static but changes over time like clothing, hairstyle, and government policies...etc.

Language contact is an important factor behind language change, whether there is a contact between languages, there is inevitably language change. Language change occurs in three situations: spontaneous change, borrowing and imposition.

1-Spontaneous change means the change is a temporal rule, not on purpose but rather through interaction because “no two people speak exactly the same” (Jones and Esch, 2002: 123), people tend to require new words and utterances.

2-Borrowing is the adoption of foreign features and new concepts in one’s language, i.e. contact between languages may induce speakers to borrow words, use forms and usages from the influencing language (foreign language).

3-Imposition occurs either through colonization or invasion by forcing the weaker communities to adopt another language.

Linguistic change exists as soon as a new form develops and begins to be used alongside an existing form. This is easy to be noticed in slang words. For example, in the

USA young people use different words to mean 'Really good' like fantastic, magic, cool, awesome, super. The word awesome may first develop in the usage of a particular sub-group, .i.e. boys. These speakers will attract the attention of other groups of the same generation. That is, if boys or girls admire them, then they will start to use the new word and it will begin to spread throughout the community and becomes the new norm for expressing the idea of 'really good'.

2.1. Types of Language Change

Language change may be broadly divided into two categories: external change and internal change. External change is mainly caused by the adoption of borrowing whereas internal change is caused by the addition and loss of sounds and lexical items, coinage of new words and extensions. The three main aspects of language change defined by sociolinguists are: lexical change, phonological change, and grammatical change.

2.1.1. Lexical Change

Vocabulary change is the most frequent one and can be easily recognized. New words are adopted in the native language. The vocabulary of a language is called 'lexis' and it is the lexical items which are examined. Differences in vocabulary are quite noticeable between the different geographical areas or regions. For instance 'a carbonated soft drink' might be called 'pop' in the inland North and West of the United States, 'Soda' in the Northeast, 'tonic' in Eastern New England, and 'cold drink', 'drink' or 'dope' in various parts of the South (Carver 1987 :268).

Many sociolinguists point out that lexical differences are not very important in distinguishing the speech of different social or socioeconomic classes. So, when investigating language variation, they rather concentrate on differences in phonology and grammar. But it is worth noting that one area where social group differences are reflected strongly in the lexicon is in variation according to age group, particularly in the slang of teenagers and young adults. The introduction of new vocabulary and the change in lexis spread rapidly.

2.1.2. Phonological Change

Phonological change or change in pronunciation may occur in the pronunciation of single words or the pronunciation of a particular sound. One relevant aspect of

phonological variation is that it is often conditioned by the phonetic environment, that is, the place where in an utterance or the sound occurs. Concerning the change in the pronunciation of words, an example is given by Hudson (1996: 170) about the word ‘controversy’. Older speakers tend to pronounce it with a stress in the first syllable i.e. ‘controversy, while younger people tend to stress the second syllable i.e. controversy.

2.1.3. Grammatical Change

Grammatical change is the less apparent change because it spreads slowly and takes a longer time than for lexical change. Yet, it is more apparent in vernacular forms. For instance, the dialectal English of New York gang members, who tend to omit the final -ed of the simple past in verbs like ‘to miss’ and ‘to pass’ ; instead, they use : ‘ He miss the bus yesterday’ and ‘It pass me’ respectively (Holmes, 2000).

Grammatical variation involves two sub-types: morphology and syntax.

Morphology refers to the structure or forms of words, including the morphemes or minimal units of meaning which comprise words, for instance the morphemes {un} ‘not’ and {happy} ‘happy’ in ‘unhappy’, or the morphemes {cat} ‘cat’ and {s} plural in ‘cats’. *Syntax* refers to the structure of larger units like phrases and sentences, including rules for combining and relating words in sentences.

2.3. Linguistic versus Social Variables

Here we try to define and clarify the difference between linguistic and social variables.

2.3.1. Linguistic variables

Linguistic variables as a sociolinguistic concept, is a feature that varies i.e. it takes different forms depending on certain factors. So, sociolinguists have used different ways and techniques which were based on Labov’s methods. In fact , it was labov who coined the concept of ‘Linguistic variable’ in accordance with his work on Martha’s Vineyard (1963) “**to serve as the focus for the study of a speech community**” (Labov, 1972a: 7-8). For him, a linguistic variable is “a linguistic feature with ... [a] range of variation” (*ibid*), “the linguistic variable was required to be ‘highly stratified’ and to have ‘an asymmetric distribution over a wide range of age levels or other ordered strata of the society” (Quoted in Tagliamonte).

From another point of view Wardaugh (2006:143) considers linguistic variables as “a linguistic item which has identifiable variants”. For example, words like *singing* and *fishing* are sometimes pronounced as [sɪŋɪn] and [fɪʃɪn]. The final sound in these words may be called the linguistic variable (ing) with its two variants *singing* and *singin*”. The variable (-ing) has two identifiable variants either [-ing] or [-in]. Moreover, any linguistic variable has at least two realizations. These realizations are called ‘variants’ which can be substituted for one another without changing the meaning of the word.

2.3.2. Social variables

A social variable is a non- linguistic feature which has a correlation with the use of a certain linguistic variable in a specific context. Similar to the linguistic variable, the social variable can occur in different ways. There is a wide range of social differences between speakers which have been found to relate to linguistic variation. In other words, people as the main component of a society speak differently. They do not share the same linguistic repertoire. The social factors that have been already investigated are age, gender, social status, ethnicity, and so on. These social factors direct the use of a language. In what follows, the focus of this research work is on age and gender as social variables.

2.3.2.1. Age

Social sciences focus a lot on the variable of age since it has a weighty role in language variation. Most sociolinguists agree on the fact that young speakers show differences in speech from old speakers, they are different in terms of their language behaviours. Generally speaking, old people are considered as being conservative while young people are regarded as leaders of linguistic innovation. They tend to borrow words from other languages as an attempt to be up-to-date persons. In other words, they look for a fashionable language. As stated by Eckert and Rickford (2001: 123), “... **younger people tend to adopt new forms more quickly than older people do and use them extensively**”.

Sankoff (2004) argues that “**speakers might be changing various aspects of their language over the course of their lives**”. (Quoted in Fought, 2004:121). Towards the direction of change, old speakers may change their speech through time which is known as historical change. If, as a rule, all speakers of a community use more tokens of one variant at a certain age and more tokens of the same variant at another age, the

variable is said to be age-graded. The phenomenon of age-grading (Hockett 1950) has been described as: **“a pattern of use in which linguistic items are used by people of a particular age who then stop using it when they grow older”** (Hudson 1998: 15). In addition to that, it is **“one of the major issues in contemporary sociolinguistics”** (Tagliamonte 2012: 247). For example, in Algeria a child calls his mother /mama/ but when he gets older he changes the same term to /mma/, /laʃju:z/, /ʃibanija/ and sometimes calls her even with her name. In accordance with age, gender also plays an important role in language variation as linguistic differences between males and females exist.

2.3.2.2. Gender

Gender has gained sociolinguists' attention since it has a significant function in determining language variation. First and foremost, we should distinguish between 'gender' and 'sex' as two different concepts in the field of sociolinguistics, then we highlight some interesting claims about language and gender. The relationship between the two concepts is that sex is a biological classification while gender is the social representation of this biological notion (Eckert & Mc Connel, 2003).

.23.2.2.1. Gender and Sex

It should be distinguished between 'gender' and 'sex' as two problematic terms in social sciences. The British sociologist Giddens (1989:158) defines 'sex' in terms of **« biological or anatomical differences between men and women»**, whereas **'gender' concerns the psychological, social and cultural differences between males and females»**. Put it briefly, Wardhaugh (2006:315) states that: **“Sex is to a very large extent biologically determined whereas gender is a social construct involving the genetic, psychological, social, and cultural differences between males and females”**. He makes a distinction between sex and gender declaring that the former has to do with the biological status, whereas the latter represents the social role that an individual has to play in society, i.e. behaving as a male or female.

2.3.2.2.2. Language and Gender

Since the emergence of sociolinguistics as a discipline, gender has been an important sociolinguistic variable controlling linguistic variation. After years of research, sociolinguists' investigations proved that men and women do speak differently. The

investigation of gender-specific language variation started in the 1960's with the sociophonological surveys of William Labov, especially his study on Martha's Vineyard (1965) and his New York study (Labov, 1966b). His studies show a stratification of phonological variables according to sex/gender, age, socio-economic status, and situational context. He resulted that: first, women of higher classes use more standard variants than their equivalent men. Second, the lower middle class (LMC) «hyper corrects» its language; it copies features of the middle class (MC), whose language behaviour is more standard, in order to gain social prestige. From the findings, Labov's investigation confirms the hypothesis that says men and women speak in different ways but he didn't explain the reasons for which women use more standard forms than men. He just pointed out that : **«Women... are said to be more expressive than men or use expressive symbols more than men or rely more on such symbols to assert their position »** , and **« women are said to rely more on symbolic capital than men because they possess less material power »** . (Labov, 1990:214)

In the same vein, Trudgill, in his study of Norwich (1972) tried to find out the reasons for which women use more standard forms than men. He assumed that men are judged according to their work, whereas women are assessed according to their appearance. Trudgill (1972:91) states: **“The social position of women in our society is less secure than that of men... It may be... that it is more necessary for women to secure and signal their social status linguistically”**.

Lakoff (1975), in her work, sets basic assumptions of what marks out the speech of women. She claims that women use colour words like *mauve*, *turquoise*, and *lavender*, but the majority of men do not. Moreover, she maintains that adjectives; such as *adorable*, *charming*, *lovely*, and *sweet* are also commonly used by women but only very rarely used by men. Her study suggested that women spoke more proper English (e.g., saying *whom do you like?* rather than *who do you like?*) than men because of the insecurity caused by sexism in society. Lakoff studied the speech differences between men and women and attributed it to sexism and hierarchy in society.

Briefly speaking, in the seventies and early eighties a great amount of scholarly works has been done in the field of language and gender. In which, the emphasis was on the issue of male dominance towards studying language differences between males and females.

To sum up, two theories are worth mentioning as far as research in language and gender is concerned; the difference and dominance theories.

1-The Difference Theory

The difference theory bases its assumptions on the idea that men and women belong to different sub-cultures, social and linguistic worlds. Deborah Taneen (1990) in her research, has tried to show how girls and boys are brought up differently. According to her, gender differences in language start in childhood and are then used to support the kinds of social behaviour males and females exhibit. As she says :

“The differences between women and men in ways of interacting may be the result of different socialisation and acculturation patterns. If we learn the ways of talking mainly in single sex peer groups, then the patterns we learn are likely to be sex-specific. And the kind of miscommunication which undoubtedly occurs between women and men will be attributable to the different expectations each sex has of the function of the interaction, and the ways it is appropriately conducted”.(Holmes, 1992 :330)

2- The Dominance Theory

This theory claims that language behaviour reflects male dominance which means that men in all situations try to take control and to dominate. It was Lakoff (1975) who was considered as the founder of “the dominance theory”. According to her, the main difference between male and female lies in the inequality between them. Consequently, since women are relatively powerless they adopt more prestigious language forms to protect themselves in dealing with the more powerful. (Wardaugh,2006: 327). For example, in cross-gender conversations men frequently interrupt women but women interrupt men much less frequently (Zimmerman and West, 1975).

As a conclusion, we may say that the dominance theory posits the view that men and women seem to often exhibit the power relationship that exists in society with men dominant and women subservient. (Wardaugh, 2006: 326).

2.4. Linguistic Innovation

Language change is the result of human activity. It is possible to explain the root of innovations and their effects taking into account the evident fact that speakers plan to change their language without being aware of.

Generally speaking, young people are innovative individuals- a characteristic that is seen in their way of speaking. Speakers come up with new words which will be part of their vocabulary to talk about novelty, trends, developments or events in society taking into account technical and scientific innovations. In the same time, they discard items which are no longer useful by old persons. In Algeria, for instance, words like [bayi nkonaakti], [bayi nfajsbuuki], etc. are specific to youngsters and widely used by this category of people. It is strange enough hearing an old person uttering such words.

According to Keller (1994: 105) “**[w]hen we are talking, we try to kill several birds with one stone: we try to conform, attract attention, be understood, save energy**”. By this, Keller’s intention was to talk about a number of maxims including an attempt to belong or not to a given group, to draw attention or not and to minimise energy. In a nutshell, Keller’s idea of being socially successful, which is the speaker’s aim, may gather different meanings depending on the situation.

As had been noted by Otto Jespersen (1922) “**women do nothing more than keep to the traditional language which they have learned from their parents and hand on to their children, while innovations are due to the initiative of men**”. Although this may be true, Labov (2001: 360) sheds light on the role of women as leaders of linguistic innovation because they are “**centrally located in the socioeconomic hierarchy**”; **in addition to that, they have “intimate contacts throughout their local groups”** but they also intimate friends in the neighbourhoods (*ibid*).

Youngsters innovate words as an attempt to seem fashionable. Thus, technological advancement is a factor behind innovating new words. They borrow new items, especially those who are up-to-date. On the other hand, they discard useless items and stop to use them. This is why dictionary making is endless.

2.5. Neologism

Neologism is an interesting phenomenon in that their emergence reveals the capability of language to be living and dynamic rather than dead. The term ‘neologism’ was coined in English in the early 1800s. It is derived from Greek in which ‘neos’ means

‘new’ while ‘logos’ refers to ‘word’, and the suffix ‘-ism’ is a marker for the process. **“In linguistics, a neologism refers to a recently created (or coined) word, phrase or usage which can sometimes be attributed to a specific individual, publication, period or event”** (Ahmed Ibrahim 2010: 248). In other words, it is a newly coined word that may be in the process of entering common use, but has not yet been accepted into mainstream language. Newmark (1988:140) defined neologism as: **“newly coined lexical units or existing lexical units that acquire a new sense”**. That is, the process of neologism refers to the introduction of new words into a language, as well as to an existing term that adopts a new meaning. Neologisms are usually introduced when an individual(s) finds that a specific notion is lacking a term in a language, or when the existing vocabulary is insufficiently detailed. Since the world is witnessing an era of social networks, youngsters, for example, coined a new term referring to people who post too much information (which is often boring or embarrassing) about themselves online, i.e. over sharers.

Mair (2006: 38) argues that **“the most salient type of neologism is a word which is new in its form and which refers to a concept which is new”**. That is, the new concept should be either borrowed from another language or formed according to the rules of word formation process. In this vein, Wardaugh (2002:188) says that: **a new lexicon can be adopted either by using elements already present in the language or by borrowing lexicons from another language.**

Linguistically speaking, Neologism is an important morphological process to produce new words in a language. It is used as one of the ways to generate new words or phrases which can sometimes reflect new innovations and progresses in science, culture as well as developments in technology, politics, social trend... etc.

Neologism can be found in several types among which we have:

- Scientific i.e., words or phrases created to describe new scientific achievements.
- Pop culture i.e., words or phrases used to describe popular cultural phenomena.
- Trademarks i.e., neologisms may enter the language as a generalized trademark.
- Nonce words i.e., words created and used only for a particular occasion.

Equally important, There is another sort of distinction among neologisms. That is to say several versions of neologisms can be pointed out as follows: (adapted from IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science pp25-35).

1.Unstable: extremely new, neologisms are used only by a very small subculture but still not reaching a large public.

2. Diffused: they have touched a significant audience, but not yet having gained the acceptance level.
3. Stable: they have gained recognisable audience and probably lasting acceptance.
4. Dated: at this level, neologisms are no more novel; at the same time gaining formal linguistic acceptance and even may have passed into becoming a cliché.
5. Passé: at this step, neologisms become so culturally old-fashioned to the point that they are avoided because their use is seen as stigma, i.e., neologisms do not appear in the lexicon at all.

The table below is a summary of what is mentioned above:

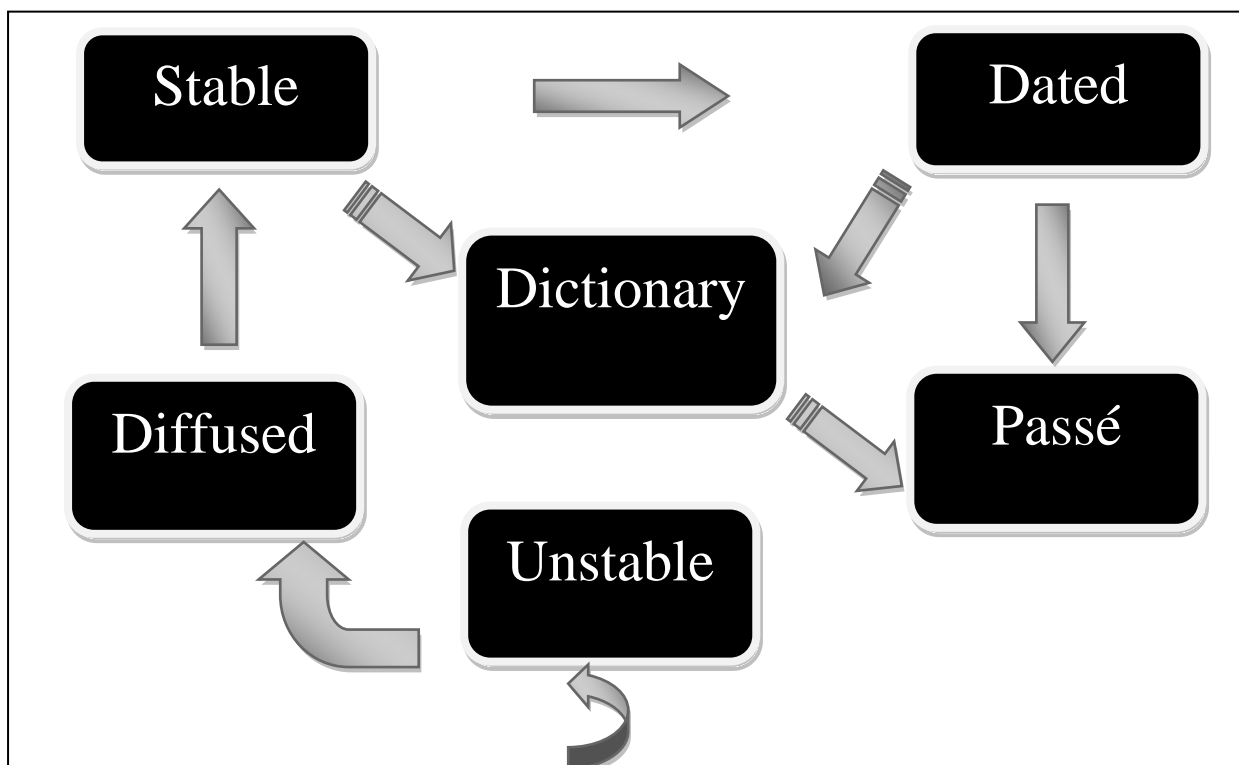


Figure 2.1 : Neologism Life Cycle

2.5.1 Diffusion

Most innovations, be it new pronunciations, new affixes or new words, may start within a given group or location; after that, these innovations may be spread over the speech community (this may be the case for one language or between languages in contact).

First, it is believed that adults may adopt innovations for several communicative needs without changing their grammar. This idea was supported by Andersen (2003: 232)

who says that “[w]here reanalysis of the base grammar occurs in the course of a speaker’s primary grammar formation, adoption is achieved through a secondary modification of the speaker’s usage rules”.

Second, recent sociolinguistic researches showed that leaders of the process of diffusion are particular social groups mainly central members so as, innovations are more frequently to diffuse within certain sorts of community rather than other sorts. In this response, Labov (2001: 364) adds “[l]eaders of linguistic change are centrally located in social networks which are expanded beyond their immediate locality”. Central members of a community have the opportunity to make the innovation diffused (what is called by the Milroys ‘early adopters’) and they, as well, may pick up innovations taken from marginal members due to their covert rather than overt prestige... etc.

Coupled with Keller’s (1994) viewpoint, the only reason for diffusion is the common innovation itself since almost all speakers innovate in an attempt to serve their communicative needs, even though not all innovations are selected to be diffused and then become a current change.

Innovations can be diffused in three different ways:

- a. *Wave-Model Diffusion*: This model is said to be the most iconic and the simplest model of the geographical spread of innovations because it depends primarily on the friction of distance. It is whereby innovations radiate out from a central point reaching nearby locations before more distant ones.
- b. *Urban-Hierarchy Diffusion*: This model claims that innovations descend down a hierarchy of metropolis to city to town to village.
- c. *Contra-hierarchical Diffusion*: This model contrasts with the previous one in the sense that innovations diffuse against the urban hierarchy but it occurs only very occasionally with smoothing process.

2.6. Language Attitude

Individuals, in the same community may have different attitudes, feelings or beliefs about language, i.e. their own language and the language of other people. However, the use of certain linguistic features is up to personal motives and psychological matters. Sociolinguists studied this phenomenon under the name ‘language attitude’, which is defined as the reaction or feeling a speaker has toward a language which can be either his own or another language and this can be from the hearer’s part as well as the speaker’s

part. As argued by Holmes (2013: 409), **“ultimately attitudes to language reflect attitudes to the users and the uses of language...”**.

When one starts talking to another, he/she starts having an idea about the interlocutor and sometimes it can only be based on the way the other talks (Chambers 2003: 2-11). Probably, everyone has a notion of the meaning of the word ‘attitude’ which is seen as an interdisciplinary concept.

Attitudes grew up from social, ethnic and religious norms which are transmitted from one generation to another. That is, if speakers of a particular country stop to use a variety, it will vanish away through time. Under the tight of this light, Fromkin, Rodman and Hyams (2010: 478-479) confirm that **“language cannot be obscene or clean; attitudes towards specific words or linguistic expressions reflect the views of a culture or society toward the behaviors and actions of the language users”**.

On balance, adults often possess negative attitudes towards youth language because they think of it as ‘sloppy’ and inappropriate. In their turn, youth are aware of these attitudes and conscious enough about their generational difference in speech (Kotsinas: 1997). As a matter of fact, Algerians’ attitudes are part of their social and cultural norms of the society which limits its members’ behaviours and language.

2.7. Language and Identity

People are different from each other. That is, there are characteristics, feelings and beliefs that distinguish a person from other individuals. These things constitute what is known as identity. Many definitions have been offered to clarify language identity. In this respect, Dyer (2007: 101) claims that **“particularly phonology or accent may be used as resources by speakers to project their identity in the world”**. While Block (2007: 40) sees it as **“... the assumed and/or attributed relationship between one’s sense of self and a means of communication which might be known as a language, a dialect or a sociolect”**.

In social sciences, specialists in the field identify different kinds of identity, for example, self-identity which refers to the qualities, beliefs, personality, looks and/or expressions that make a person. Another kind of identity is the psychological identity, which relates to self-image (one’s mental model of oneself), self-esteem, and individuality. Besides, we can speak about other identities, like gender identity, cultural identity, religious identity, national identity, and many others.

Language and identity have a mutual relationship. On the one hand, a language reflects the identity of its speakers. On the other hand, the identity of an individual shapes his language and linguistic choices. That is, if a speaker changes his language and linguistic behaviour, his identity will change inevitably. This is referred to as language identity.

Over the last decades, Youth identity has been the subject matter of a great amount of research. Their linguistic identity is constructed locally as well as globally and this may be due to the influence of pop and media culture. In addition, youth identities can only be understood within their particular sociocultural context. Recent linguistic research on youth identities has found that youngsters are actors and subjects construct selves.

Language and identity remain two terms permanently interacting within every aspect of daily life (university, jobs... etc). Language is, therefore, a marker of identity but the complexity of identity has been and still is a never-ending puzzle.

After independence, Algerian governments and successive leaders attempted to revive Arabic and Islamic culture and values by giving Arabic the rank of national language so as not to lose the Algerian identity since language is crucial to cultural identity.

2.8. Motives Leading to Innovation

As language evolves to meet the requirement of the digital era, it is observable that linguistic innovations grow up in this fertile land. One question to each mind is what makes the individuals (youth) innovate? In an attempt to find an answer, three main factors appear to the surface, namely globalization, mass media and culture influence.

2.8.1. Globalization

The term globalization was first introduced by Marshal MC Luhan in the 1960s in which he referred to the world as a 'global village'. Globalization can be considered as the result of the latest achievements in technologies that led to accessibility of long distance telephone communication. It is also understood as the process of economic, political and cultural integration. In the words of Eriksen (2007) globalization belongs to different domains as **“cultural studies, sociology, economics, interactional relations, political theory, art and linguistics”** and globalization, according to him, is **“a buzz word of the moment”**. (*ibid*) The increasing role of the internet as a tool for getting information and communicating helps the integration and interaction of youth in a global village which

lead them to coin new words in their own mother tongue. Algeria, as well, have been affected by the shade of globalization and this can be widely seen clearly since it seeks to be part of any system or programme that can serve as an opening to the outside world and many new words invaded the Algerian verbal repertoire. This reality has called for the assumption that globalization evidently influences language change which must be analysed within the sociolinguistic scale of globalization (Blommaert, 2003).

2.8.2. Mass Media

Social and other digital communication media are a daily part of life for the majority of youth, which is commonly considered as being very powerful and having a great impact on the extensive public. It has an effect on people's estimations and their viewpoints. Identically, mass media gather TV, radio, newspapers and internet as means of communication that touch a huge number of people in short time. Because of these means, new words are innovated continually especially by young speakers. Nearby, the term 'mediation' developed in different area of sociolinguistics to describe the way non-standard vernaculars are produced in media texts (Copland, 2009). Thus, mass media affect almost all languages, as the meaning of new words are grasped very quickly, and become widespread in all social groups. For example, the English language has changed a lot in the last decades by the previous messaging applications, such as messenger. Now, English is changing in 'whatsapp' which is the most used messaging system in the world. To illustrate how it is changed, someone who is in a rush, for instance, and needs to get a message across to a friend used words like OMG (Oh my God), LOL (laughing out loud), ROFL (rolling on the floor laughing), BRB (be right back), etc. These words are created to gain time when writing and make the sending of messages faster.

Using social networks like *facebook* and *twitter* has become a part from modern adolescence which facilitates the access to multiple linguistic and cultural resources via global media. More recent research has shown that TV and media may have an indirect influence on linguistic behaviour as they provide consciousness of the linguistic innovations (Carvalho,2004). Recently, many Algerian youth have become addicted to social networks like facebook, twitter, whatsapp, etc. In fact, they use these networks for different purposes. Some of them tend to be in most of their time online to know what is going on in the world. Others, for instance, use a particular social network to learn

languages. However, the majority of Algerians use facebook, for example, for the sake of enjoying their time speaking to their friends, posting and sharing funny things.

Thus, young people are said to be highly affected by social media culturally and linguistically. In either case, some are optimistic about the potential benefits of social media for youth development and creativity while others have a fear from the impact these media may have, especially when it comes to youth linguistic and social well being.

2.8.3. Culture Influence

Culture reflects a logical interaction and exchange that takes place as a natural social practice which explain the notion of 'sharing' as mentioned by many anthropologists like Hall (2001: 38) to whom culture “**embraces all aspect of shared life in a community**” since culture has been ranged in the category of all what is manmade and encloses all features of humans' lives. So, it goes without saying that it takes its roots inside of a community whose members accept and agree on its different and variant features.

Yet, the new generations are easily influenced by the more fashionable cultures and thus, their mother tongue also can be influenced by the language of these cultures. A position has been also shared by the linguists Peterson and Coltrane (2003: 1) when they say that “**language is not only part of how we define culture, it also reflects culture**”. It is intended to probe the importance of culture influence on youth language because it can be of a great part in the innovation of new terms brought from different dominant cultures around the world.

2.9. Conclusion

The above-tackled chapter has been devoted to give an overview about the language change and variation in general, and discussed the most important concepts related to the topic such as innovation , neologism.....etc. Since the work is dealing with youth linguistic innovation, this chapter has shed some light on the social variables that influence language, mainly age and gender which are the most important factors that affect youth language. It also endeavoured to highlight innovations, attitudes and identity as well as factors which lead to the emergence of those innovations as a final stage. The next chapter is devoted for the practical part of this work which aims at analyzing and interpreting the data collected.

Chapter Three

3.1. Introduction

After surviving the two theoretical chapters of the research, the focus is turned towards a general research methodology in which the research strategy and the design chosen to best achieve the objectives of this study. This present work attempts to report a detailed description of collected data in this investigation and the relevant aspects in undertaking this research including: a written questionnaire and a word list. The finding results are discussed in such a way that the data are presented in two sections. The first section includes data taken from the questionnaire while the second section presents the data taken through the word list. Adopting different research tools that played a vital role in providing rich data, we aim at providing foundation for discussion to our research questions which are studied throughout this study.

3.2. Research Methodology

Generally speaking, the word research is recognized as a way of finding out answers to the questions raised. This present work is conducted as a trial to check the presences of lexical innovation among the younger generation in Tiaret speech community; precisely at the University of Ibn Khaldoun. The selected sample is sixty second year university students who were being requested to fill in a questionnaire and a word list. In addition to that, the data are collected by means of quantitative and qualitative methods performed by four stages: collecting data, classifying, analyzing and interpreting them.

3.3. Instrumentation

For the aim of obtaining answers to our research questions, collecting data depend on two relevant tools: written questionnaire and word list which are useful to collect enough examples of new coined words. The choice of these tools depends on the kind of the research method used and the researcher's objective .

3.3.1. The Questionnaire

Questionnaires are recognized as traditional methods used by previous dialectologists, and are still used nowadays. It is a research instrument consisting of a series of structured questions which require concise answers. In other sense, questionnaires

are “**printed forms for data collection, which include questions or statements to which the subject is expected to respond, often anonymously**” (Seliger & Shohamy,1989:172). According to Copland, Garton and Richards (2010), “a questionnaire is an instrument designed to gather information by means of analyzing responses to a number of questions”. In fact, this type of research instruments is the most common tool adopted by researchers. In this vein, Bloomer (2010) assumes that questionnaires are very popular means of gathering information. In this study a questionnaire was devised to collect answers from a large sample of one hundred university students.

The questionnaire was primarily written in English. This latter included a simple and, consistent wording and questions formats as possible in order to avoid any kind of misunderstanding or confusion. The design of the questionnaire, in fact, was the mixture of open- ended and close-ended questions. In the first part the questionnaire sought to obtain preliminary information about the respondents themselves (age and gender). The questionnaire includes a series of choices as in the (1) and (3) questions that help the participants to answer by picking up the appropriate answer. Some questions are necessary to be answered with participants’ own words in order to give their view or to explain their choices as in the (4), (5) and (6) questions (see appendix1).

3.3.1.1. Administration of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was handed out to a large sample of sixty (60) second year university students. The questionnaire took place in different places at the University of Tiaret during the period of exams and in a friendly atmosphere, specifically in the university, classrooms where students from different ages are available from (19 to 23 years).

Some of the questionnaires were filled in classes with the approval and help of teachers while others were completed in the department of English at Ibn Khaldoun University by the researchers who were given the opportunity to conduct the students, so they explained the task by giving examples.

The questionnaire consisted of eleven questions in which each question has an objective to achieve. The target behind employing this questionnaire was to find out why do youngsters coin new words? What are the main factors supporting in increasing of this phenomenon and which gender use considerably these new words?

3.3.2. The Word List

In order to interpret the data collected both quantitatively and qualitatively, another research instrument, i.e. a word list has been given to the same sample of informants. The aim of this latter is to gather as much as possible new coined words. Since the informants were of both sexes, the objective of this kind of research tool is to discover whether lexical innovation is gender related phenomenon or not.

The word list includes one page and contains ten (10) expressions and words written in English. The expressions were selected deliberately to bring a number of expected words that are mostly used by youth in their daily conversations. The respondents have been given freedom to write in Arabic or French answering (see appendix 2). In addition to that, an example for each expression was provided from Algerian Arabic with their phonetic transcription.

3.4. Pilot Study

The materials used in this research work, i.e. a questionnaire and a word list were piloted with the help of classmates and doctorate students who suggested to prepare another outline of the questionnaire. Later, they were piloted for the second time with the help of some teachers. With their suggestions, small changes were made on the layout of the option.

3.5. Participants' Characteristics

Our data are collected from a large sample of sixty (60) second year Tiaret University students of both sexes. Participants were selected randomly in the English department at Ibn Khaldoun University and contacted by the researchers or other students from the same field of study who helped in the research.

Representativeness is one of the fundamental qualities of a good sample. This sample was selected on purpose. First, the researcher wants to make his investigation in lexical innovation among the younger generation speech. Second, the category of students who were selected is fairly accessible and representative community of University students because they have been in contact with French and Arabic for a long time. Those students

are selected because they interact in Arabic, French and English in order to discover the influence of the three languages on their daily conversations.

The sampling according to Dörnyei (2006:98) is “**the target population are selected for the purpose of the study if they meet certain practical criteria such as geographical proximity, availability at a certain time, easy accessibility, or the willingness to volunteer**”.

3.6. Data Collection Methods

Data collection is an important aspect in any scientific study. Every research work needs a clear strategy for gathering data. To do so, two research methods are adopted by the researcher, i.e. quantitative and qualitative.

3.6.1. Quantitative Method

As a sociolinguistic research on lexical innovation among the younger generation speech from a gender based analysis, this work tries to get generalizable findings that can be applied to other younger generation in Algeria. So, many information and examples should be gathered. To achieve this task, a quantitative method should be employed.

First, methods emphasize objective measurements and the statistical, mathematical or numerical analysis of data gathered through questionnaires, surveys and polls or by manipulating statistical data employing computational techniques. Nunan and Bailey (2009) point out: “**quantitative data analysis is of worth consideration in that it puts forward processes of counting or measuring**”. Quantitative research depends on collecting numerical data and generalizing it across groups of people or to explain a particular phenomenon. This type of data collection method is vastly used in the field of social sciences. In a quantitative research study the researcher aims at determining ‘the relationship between one thing [an independent variable] and another [a dependent variable or outcome variable] within a population’.

3.6.2. Qualitative Method

The combination between quantitative and qualitative methods is so useful in conducting a sociolinguistic research on lexical innovation among younger generation speech from a gender based analysis. This later aims at obtaining a deep understanding of specific organization or event rather than a surface description of large sample of

population. In other sense, its objective is to gain a better understanding through firsthand experience (real setting). It is also named ethno-methodology. Thus, analyzing the data gathered qualitatively make the researcher capable to find out why do youngsters adopt a new style of speaking introducing new coined words. Employing a qualitative method in conducting a present research, the *why* question (why do you use coined words?) is helpful to be introduced in the questionnaire. It helps in the exploration of the motives behind using new words by younger generation in the speech community of Tiaret.

3.7. Data Analysis and Interpretation

At this stage, the data gathered pass through two processes, first analysis and then interpretation.

3.7.1. Questionnaire Analysis and Interpretation

Question 1: The respondents were required to precise their gender. Because the population was chosen equally in terms of gender, the number of both sexes was predicted, i.e. thirty males and thirty females.

Question 2: The participants were asked to give their age: They are aged between 19 and 23 years old. The following figure clarifies the findings.

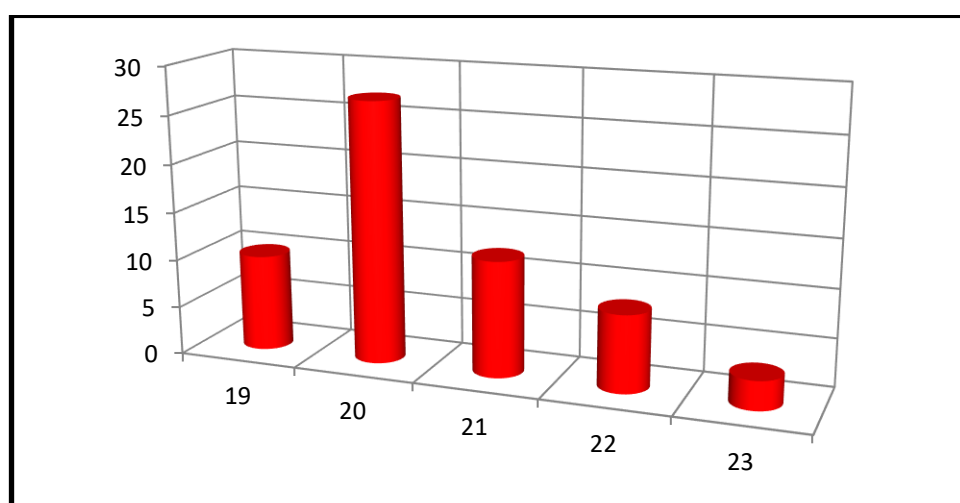


Figure 3.1. Informants' Age

The majority of the respondents are 20 years old since they are second year university students. The other participants are aged 19, 21 and 22. Only five students among them are aged 23.

Question 3: Do you think that old and young people speech is different?

Yes	98%
No	02%
	100%

Table 3.1. Youth Awareness of Speech Difference between Old and Young People

The third question was asked to discover the awareness of youth with regard to speech style differentiation between their generation and the old one. Figure 3.2 represents the answers given by the informants. The answers reveal that 98% are aware of that difference while only 2% see that old and young people do speak the same.

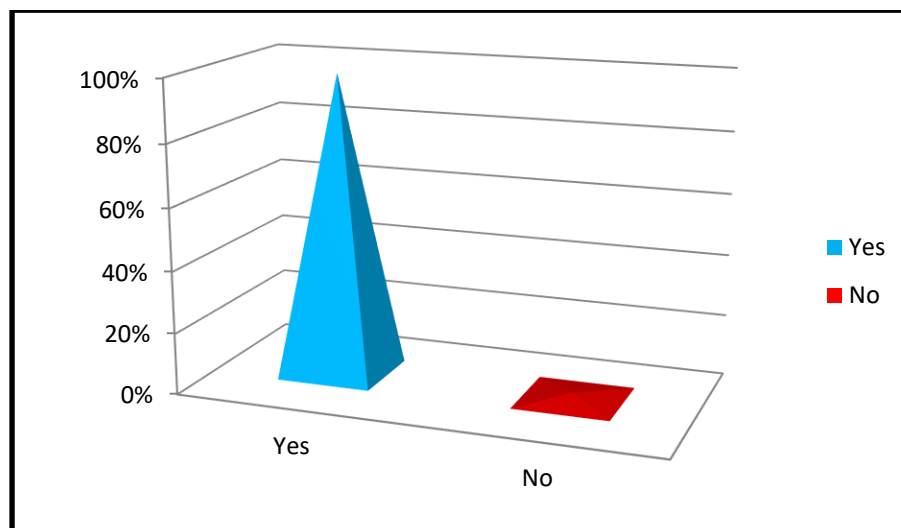


Figure 3.2. Youth Awareness of Speech Difference between Old and Young People

Question 4: Do you use new words or expressions in daily conversations, like artist, annouch, saroukh, 3ando chekara...etc?

This question was asked to verify if the new words are part of the respondents' every day speech. In this question, the informants were asked to answer by Yes or No and give example if their answers are positive. The majority of male respondent's answers were positive and 3 out of 30 answered by No. On the other hand, females' answers were not close to those of male informants since 20 out of 30 gave negative answers. The figure 3.3 illustrates the findings.

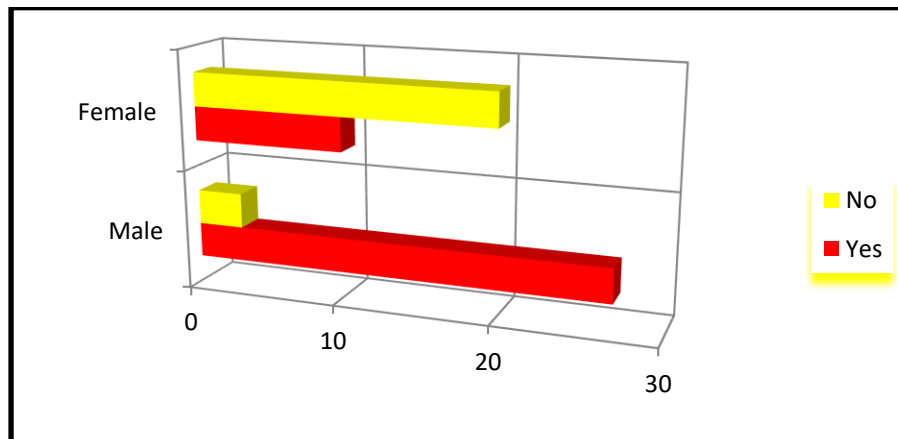


Figure 3.3. Males and Females' Used Innovated Words

As it was expected many examples were given by the informant specially "Males". However the majority of respondents did not provide meanings to their examples.

Some of the students whose answers were negative, mainly females did not produce any example. The table below states these examples:

Male examples	Females examples	Meaning
[hallab]	[hallab]	Not wanted person
[artist], [taḥṭon]	[minuʃ], [anuʃ]	Handsome boy
[papiʃa], [zella]	[papiʃa], [habba]	Beautiful girl
[manfod], [mʃumar]	[mʃumar]	Not having money
[gallit]	[gallit]	A stupid person
[ʃriki]	[ʃrikti]	My friend
[msanTah]	[mqarmad]	Crazy
[à la bien]	[à la bien]	I'm good
[annuʃ mafja]	[annuʃ mafja]	Arrogant

Table 3.2. Informants' Examples of Innovated Words According to Gender

Question 5: Why do you use new words?

This question aims to discover the reason behind the use of the new words. Some of the participants said that they use these new words to look different or it is an effect globalization. However, others use new words to break the routine of the traditional use of language and to be humorous as well. Only 10 of them use innovated words to sound fashionable while other 6 youngsters had the reason to imitate each other. On the other hand, 3 participants did not produce an answer. In addition 5 participants give other reasons as the following:

- To fill lexical gaps
- These words are more attractive
- To make a strong effect on the listener
- To show off
- Youth use these words for kidding
- It is a part of Algerian identity
- As not to be understood
- Innovated words are easy to convey
- The habit to use them

Question 6: Where do new words come from?

The respondents were free to choose more than one answer and site if any other language supports them to coin a new word.

Arabic	66%
French	50%
English	33%
Others	8%

Table.3.3. Respondents' Answers about Languages Used for Innovation

Question number six (6) looked for the languages that help the youth to coin new words. Our aim was to discover if these words are their own invention or have an etymology. According to the respondents' answers the source of language for the innovation is Arabic with 66%, French 50% then English 33%. Some of the respondents added German, Spanish and Berber.

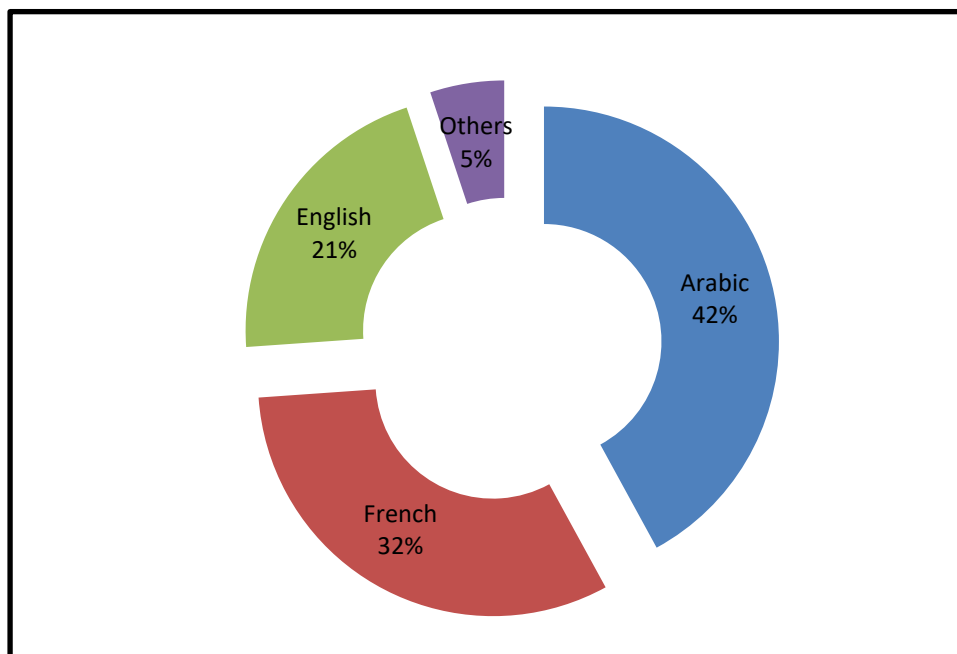


Figure 3.4. The Languages that offer Youth with Innovations

Question 7: What are some words specific to boys or girls' gender? Use (+/-)

This question represents a gender related question. Each informant was required to write down every innovated word that is suitable to their gender.

Words	Boys	Girls	Gloss
[baqlaawa]	-	+	Handsome boy
[griifa]	+	-	Of good quality
[mezɹuuqa]	-	+	Ugly girl
[ʔaantiik]	+	-	Fine
[Ok bb]	+	-	Yes my dear
[buuguus ^ɕ]	+	+	Handsome boy
[faɥsuuʃ]	-	+	Extravagant
[pitiita]	+	+	Small girl
[fiɥ lluuʃ]	+	-	Dubious
[habat]	+	-	Money
[saruux]	+	-	Drugs
[briika]	+	-	1000DA
[kluufi]	+	+	Nosy
[hiTiist]	+	+	Jobless
[jahsilha]	+	-	Well-dressed person
[baqaq]	+	+	Genius
[ʔannuuʃa]	-	+	Pretty girl
[qdim]	+	-	Old -fashioned
[manʃar]	-	+	To gossip
[mdarham]	+	+	A rich person
[les hommes]	+	+	Loyal
[fahat]	+	-	To leave
[zafaf]	+	-	Person who disclose the secret

Table 3.4. Examples of Innovated Words Specific to Each Gender

The table 3.4 involves the examples (23) provided by the respondents. It shows the specific words related to and used by each sex. It reveals that only 07 examples are used by the two genders. The majority of innovated words used in the above table are gender - distributed, that is, the majority of new words are mainly, used by males; others are considered to be specifically related to female youngsters.

Question8: How often do you use new words in each of the following situations?

Where? When? With whom?	Never	seldom	Often	Always	
At home with siblings(brother& sister) and other teenagers	14%	40%	26%	20%	100%
At home with adults; including parents	60%	18%	12%	10%	100%
At university only with friends / peers	0%	02%	20%	78%	100%
At social media (Face book, Instagram , whatsapp...etc)	02%	10%	13%	75%	100%
With people you do not know	77%	12%	11%	0%	100%
Only interacting with girls(peers)	25%	12%	30%	33%	100%
Only interacting with boys(peers)	02%	08%	20%	70%	100%
With both boys and girls	20%	10%	20%	50%	100%

Table 3.5. Youth Use of Innovation in Different Situations

Question number eight (8) checks the frequency of the use of new coined words by youngsters in Tiaret. The above table reveals that most of the informants use a lot of innovated words in their daily interaction at university only with their friends and peers with 78%, after that come social media with 75%. 70% claims that youngsters use innovated words in interacting with boys. However, 50% use these new words with both sexes and only 33% who use them in interacting with girls. Moreover 60% claims that they do not use new words at home with parents. However the percentage of the youngsters who use new words with people who do not know is 0%.

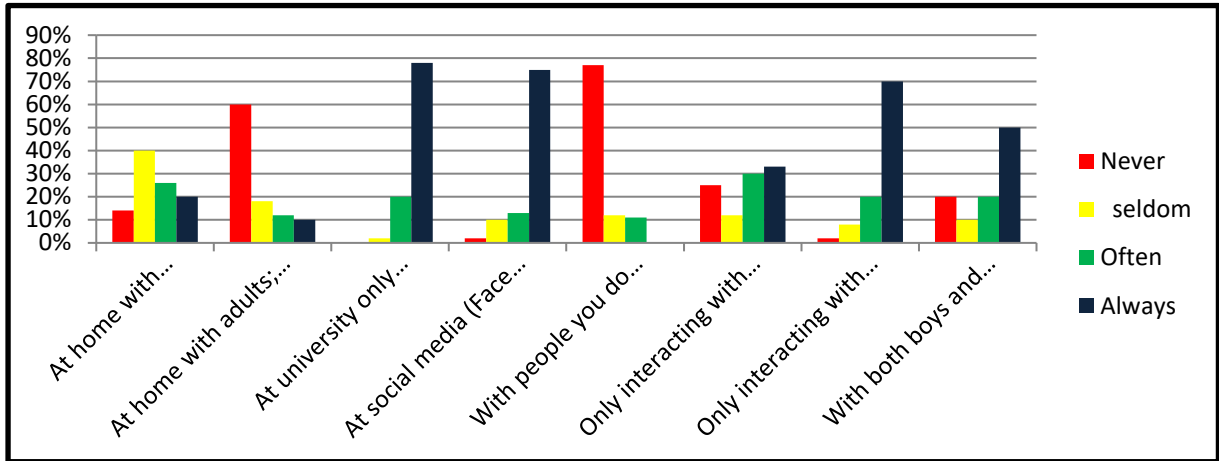


Figure 3.5. Youth Use of Innovation in Different Situations

Question 9: Do social networks help in coin new words?

Yes	87%
No	13%
	100%

Table 3.6. The Effect of Social Networks on Youth Innovations

The intention behind this question was to clarify if the social media play an effective role in changing the youth language. In accordance with that, 87% of the informants consider that social networks are helpful in innovating these words and only 13% answered negatively.

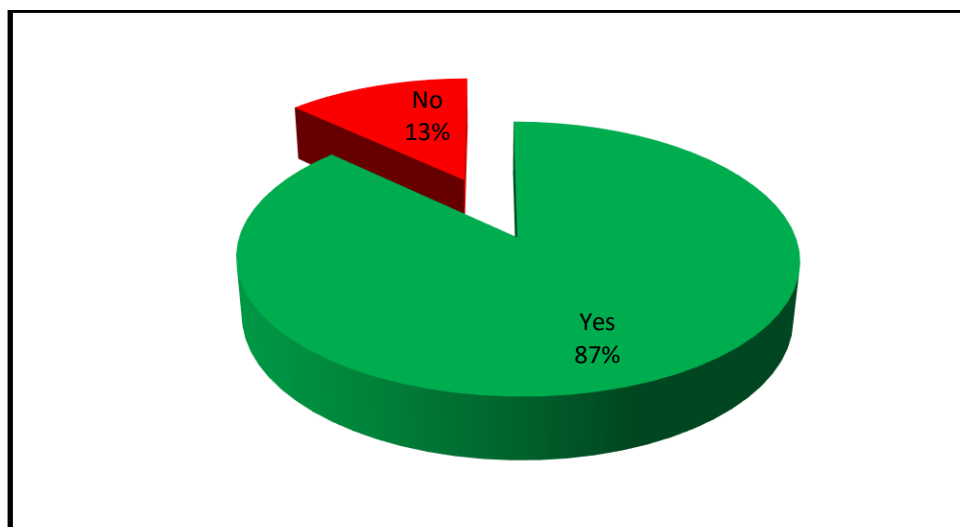


Figure 3.6. The Effect of Social Networks on Youth Innovations.

The 87% participants who said Yes explained that when using these networks including Facebook, Twitter... etc. they said that different cultures, different dialects and speech styles can influence the way they speak and make them memorize and use these new words again especially if these words were funny. Some participants said that they do not need to be formal when using social networks so they can coin new and expressive words and use them. Others added that being part of Facebook pages or groups makes them creative persons. In addition to that, funny comments in humor pages on Facebook is another way to use these innovated words and mostly all of them agree that social media has an important role in the spreading of the new used words.

Question 10: Have you ever been in a situation where you were asked to translate new words you use?

The aim of the tenth question is to mention if any person have ever asked them to translate a word that they used. The results show that 40% experienced this situation and 60% had never been asked to translate this kind of words. A figure at the end is provided for further explanation.

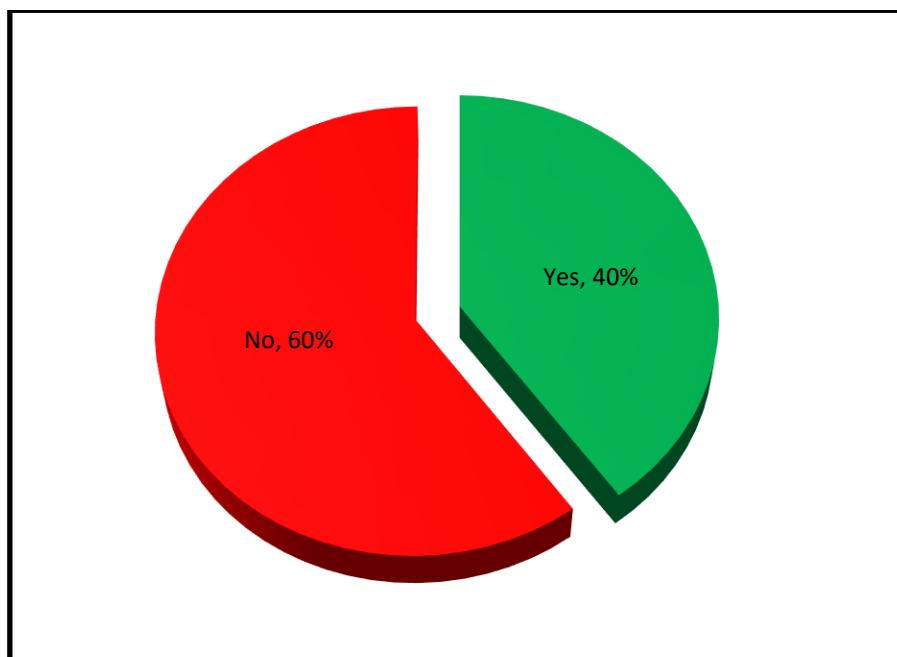


Figure 3.7. Informants' Possible Situations of Translation

Some examples were provided since 40% of the participants' answers were positive while 60% were negative. Some of the new words that are illustrated belong to both genders i.e. the same words are used by boys and girls. In the table below is provided for different words are listed with their translations:

Males examples		Females examples	
[damʁa]	Handsome boy	[ħabba]	A beautiful girl
[qarʁadʒ]	To search about secret	[parabol]	Curious person
[ħdiida]	A car	[tiki]	Money
[piriimi]	Old- fashioned	[kaw]	Feel tired
[flaaf disk]	An excellent student	[dabdoba]	A fat girl

Table 3.7. Informants' Examples of Translated Words

Question 11: Are there any additional comments you want to add concerning new words used by your generation?

Tackling this question requires the indication of respondents' views about the topic or any extra information the researchers missed to mention in questionnaire. Yet, not all the informants gave a comment.

Some students commented on the diffusion of these words they saw these innovated words as a sign of modernity and an effect of globalization. Five participants also saw that these words are more attractive and make the conversation funny. Others participants think that these new words are seen as taboo since these words have a limited use. One participant talked about the threat to the language. Another participant was proud with a new language that will be transmitted to the next generation. Some others saw these words as a password

between teenagers since they can understand them but it is impolite to use them with parents. On the one hand, for some these new words mostly come from Rai music and they are vulgar, so often impolite or misused. On the other hand, for others these words are useful and they express their real feelings also they add humour to their speech. Two girls found them cool especially the one who makes them feel positive.

3.7.2. The Word List Analysis and Interpretation

In addition to the questionnaire, a second research toll: word list was handed out to the same informants. The researcher aims at assuming the large extent of using new words by collecting as much examples as possible which are used by respondents to refer to the given words and expressions. The word list used in the present investigation consists of ten (10) words and expressions to refer to the widely used of innovated words among youth. Informants of both sexes provided an example for each meaning. They have given more than one example. Some of them have rewritten the same example given in the word list. Others did not provide example for all of the words. The following tables show these new words:

N	Meaning	Suggested Word	Informants' suggestions
1	Well dressed	[artist]	[ħat{a}, [papi{a}, [annu{a}, [top], [ʃada], [hema], [laɫclass], [for].
2	I do not have money	[ħa{ba}	[mazluta], [mizirijja], [mfoumra], [lasaqa].
3	To have fun	[tbahlil]	[ndʒiib-al-waqt],[ngaʃʃar],[nfawwatt-al-waqt], [netmasxar].
4	Old-fashioned	[dimuudi]	[piriimi],[qdiim],[taaʃbakri], [alipuuk], [dimuudi] [waqt θawra], [62], [les année 80].
5	A rich man	[fah{u}]	[mrafah],[qamquum],[miljaardaa],[mdarham], [buku draham], [ʃkaara].
6	To buy and sell	[nbaznas]	[nbaznas], [navigi],[nkomarsi], [bandarham], [nsamsar], [ndawar], [nprofiti].
7	Meet on Facebook	[nfeisboki]	[nfeisboki], [ntʃaati], [nkonakti]
8	A stupid student	[ħaabas]	[ħaabas],[mafrini],[buʔuʃu],[mbalaʃ],[mbuuqal],[moŋguuli], [dʒaahal], [zero], [mqafal], [buriko], [hmar], [kanibal].
9	Your friend	[ʃriki]	[nossi], [ʃrikti], [ħbıbtı], [ma puce], [amigo].
10	Money	[ħabbæt]	[ħabbæt], [ʃarf], [tɔriro], [ħarʃa], [moʃfodiniro], [ʃkara], [doro],[tiki] .

Table 3.8. Females' Answers

N	Meaning	Suggested Word	Informants' suggestions
1	Well dressed	[artist]	[ħat{a}], [bogos], [ʃada], [madarʃ], [la, class], [fɔr], [zazu], [mqrtas], [mstiki], [mfadad], [mathuf], [qortas].
2	I do not have money	[ħatba]	[mazlut], [manfud], [naʃfa], [mizirjja], [mʃafʃaf], [mfoumar], [lasaq], [wɪw], [ħatba], [mfætət], [zero sent].
3	To have fun	[tbahlil]	[ndziib-al-waqt], [ngaʃʃar], [nbargag], [nfawwatt-al-waqt], [netmasxar], [natguus{a}], [ndifuuli].
4	Old-fashiond	[dimuudi]	[piriimi], [qdiim], [waqtballuumi], [taaʃbakri], [alipuuk], [dimuudi], [lesannée80], [kaavi], [ʃabdqdiim], [kaarnava al], [mazaalak qdiim].
5	A rich man	[fahfuʃ]	[miljaardaar], [mdarham], [miljonaar], [mraffah], [qamquum], [kaara], [buku tiki], [beaucoup-argent].
6	To buy and sell	[nbaznas]	[nbaznas], [navigi], [nkomarsi], [nsamsar].
7	Meet on Facebook	[nfeisbok]	[nfeisboki], [ntfaatʃi], [nkonakti], [nsibari].
8	A stupid student	[ħaabas]	[ħaabas], [mafrini], [buququ], [mbalaʃ], [mbuuqal], [moŋ guul], [dʒaahal], [zero], [mqafal], [buriko], [hmar], [kanibal], [hajra fi rasu], [mbluki], [jadra].
9	Your friend	[ʃriki]	[sadiqi], [mon bra darwa], [bro], [saħbi], [ʃiko], [ħbibna], [ʃdawwi].
10	Money	[ħabbæt]	[ħarʃa], [lʃat], [kayet], [ħabbæt], [ʃarf], [toriro], [lħarʃa], [ʃkara], [doro], [tiki], [nnaqb].

Table 3.9. Males' Answers

3.7.3. Interpretation of the Findings

After analyzing the collected data both quantitatively and qualitatively, the researchers tried to summarize the findings through the interpretation of the analyzed data in this section. Among the findings, the younger generation in Tiaret speech community plays a vital role in language change as they are shifting and mixing different repertoires to come up with new words at a lexico-semantic level.

One of the more significant findings that this study has shown is that boys generally use more innovated words than girls. This has been deduced from the analysis of question 4 introduced in the questionnaire, in the sense that those boys who answered with *No* are less numerous than those of the other sex. Therefore, lexical innovation is a gender related phenomenon. The second major finding is that each boy and girl has his/her motive leading him/her to coin new words. One of the given motives is that youngsters use innovated words to seem fashionable and up-to-date with this era of technological advancement. Some of the youth informants use innovation in their daily interactions either for breaking the routine or for being humorous because being conservative in this globalized world is old fashioned, even in language. Others assume that new words are an integral part of the Algerian youngsters' language that has a crucial in making a strong effect on the listeners gaining their attention and that it makes the transmission of ideas easier. They argue that they usually use these words for appearances and behaviors in order not to be understood by others. So, they try to bring or coin new words to express what is in their minds.

The results show that there are many factors that contribute in the increasing of lexical innovation mainly social interaction and social networks such as *facebook*, *twitter*, *whats up*, etc. Moreover, these words do not come from the blue, but they are in a metaphorical way, in which the innovated word is associated with its meaning, the youngsters observe, associate and then coin the new word. For example, a well-dressed person is called by a number of youth [kør w dīkør] it is a French expression '*corps et décor*' meaning 'body and decor' used metaphorically to mean 'body and clothes' they associated the beauty of the decoration with the beauty of the clothes of the person. Sometimes mix between Arabic and other languages especially French and English. In addition, some of the informants assume that factors; such as mass media, globalization, and technological advancement play a considerable role in encouraging the spread of these innovated words among youngsters. TV, for instance, is a source for coining new words

since the majority of youth are addicted to watching movies and series. Furthermore, the technological revolution has a crucial role in enriching youth language with different vocabularies e.g [nfeisboki] ‘to connect to facebook’, [nsibari] ‘to go to cybercafé’, [nʃati] ‘to chat’ [parabol] comes from the French word ‘antenne parabolique’ it used to mean a curious person ‘satellite dish’ in English ...etc.

The results have also shown that the use of these words is limited since the youth do not use these words in any place with everyone. Nearly most of all never employ that kind of words in formal settings and with people whom they do not know. However, they use this innovated style at university only when interacting with friends and they often speak that language with boys and girls at home with siblings.

The youth neglect the language that was used by their ancestors and parents choosing a specific way of speaking related to their age and identity. These words are not of prestigious value or of high structure but rather their main characteristic is the fondness of today’s youth for uttering and expressing themselves through innovated words.

3.8. Conclusion

As opposed to the two previous chapters, this chapter was devoted to the practical part of the investigation. First, it presents the methodology followed in collecting and analyzing the data. Second, it identifies the instruments of research handled to collect the needed information. Third, it describes the sample population under study. In addition, researchers shed light on both quantitative and qualitative methods as they are integrated in this study then, the present chapter indicates the limitations encountered throughout this study.

Finally, the last chapter dealt with the analysis and interpretation of the findings which led the researcher to arrive to certain conclusions.

General Conclusion

General Conclusion

Language evolves over time, it is changeable and variable. Thus, language is affected, in one way or another, by social variables such as age, gender....etc. The relationship between language and age is crucial so long as different aged people practice the same language differently leading to innovation and change.

The present work has examined a linguistic phenomenon named 'lexical innovation'. This phenomenon has gained linguists' interest and became truly pertinent as a field of research in sociolinguistics; therefore youth language has attested to be a fertile land for the improvement of new words and phrases.

Our attempt was to describe youth language focusing on the new lexical items and to incorporate the findings of our study, as we have used two research tools: a questionnaire and a word list, for further research areas. The research work consists of three chapters. The first chapter presented the background and the actual linguistic composition of Algeria. The second chapter was the theoretical part providing the literature of the present issue covering some linguistic aspects related to the debating point. The third chapter was devoted to the practical steps of this research affording the different methods employed to analyse and interpret the data collected.

Based on the results obtained, this research permitted to provide some conclusive remarks. This study concludes that youth in Tiaret are linguistically innovative and they play a great role in the diffusion of these items and thus changing the language. The contact of several factors allows youth to be much more creative in their daily conversations.

Concerning the hypotheses, we proposed three hypotheses. These need to be assessed and evaluated. According to the obtained results, the first hypotheses corresponds with what it was noticed .That is; Young speakers coin new words that they want to be fashionable and to cope with today's globalized world. The second hypothesis seems to be affirmed, that boys are considered to be more innovative than girls. In addition, the

innovated words used by males are not similar to those used by females. The third hypothesis corresponds with what has been found through the analysis in the current research; the social media play a great role in the spreading of those words and help in bringing new items to the language as well, which is obviously agreed on by many researchers and favoured by our sample too thanks to the technological revolution that we are living.

Worth mentioning, there are some limitations. The most important limitation lies in the fact that the practical phase was conducted in period of exam. That is, we faced difficulties in contact the students. Concerning methods of research, both them did not include students from all faculties and departments of the university but it was all around the department of foreign languages. In a nutshell, this theme deserves a much more concise compilation and our attempt was to open the door for further research.

This dissertation has provided empirical, theoretical and methodological contributions to the study of language change and use among Tiaretian youth. However, investigating lexical innovation among youngsters in Tiaret needs to be studied in deep. For this reason, further research and experimentation into this topic is strongly recommended. For example, it would be interesting to make a comparison between the young and old generation speech using recordings to collect data. In addition, it is useful to start dealing with the practical side, i.e. collecting, analyzing, and finally interpreting the findings; since it requires enough time. Thus, future researchers are welcome to carry on this present survey taking into consideration the above - mentioned advice.

Bibliography

Bibliography

- Aboh, R. (2009). *Socio-linguistic innovations in modern poetry*. The Journal of New Poetry, 6, 87-108.
- Ahmed Hasani Yasin Muhammad Ali Mustafa, I. (2010). *Neologism as a Linguistic Phenomenon in Mass Media Textbook with Reference to Translation*. Journal of Historical and Cultural Studies, pp 243-264.
- Ali Chouch.H.(2006).*A Sociolinguistic Study of French: The Case Study of Oran*.
(Unpublished magister's thesis).University of Oran,Oran,Algeria.
- Andersen, H. (2003). *Actualization and the (uni) directionality of Change*. Amsterdam: Benjamin.
- Baba Zanna, I. Khadijat Alhassan, H. Hajja Karu,A. (2015). *The Concept of Pidgin and Creole*. IOSR Journal Of Humanities And Social Science. (V 20). PP 14-21.
- Baker, C. & Prys Jones, S. (1998). *Encyclopedia of Bilingualism and Bilingual Education*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Benrabah, M. (2007). *The language planning situation in Algeria*. In Language Planning and Policy in Africa, Vol.2: Algeria, Cote d'Ivoire, Nigeria and Tunisia ed by R.B.Kaplan and R.B.Baldauf Jr .Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.
- Block, D. (2007). *Second Language Identities*. Continuum: London, New York.
- Blommaert, J. (2003) "Commentary: A Sociolinguistics of Globalization". Sociolinguistics 7/4, pp. 607-623.
- Bloomer, A. (2010). *Designing a Questionnaire*. In Hunston, S. and Oakey, D.(Eds.)
Introducing Applied Linguistics. London and New York:Routledge,145-150
- Bloomfield, L. (1933). *Language*. New York: Holt Rinehart and Winston.

- Bouamrane, A. (1986), *Aspects of sociolinguistics situation in Algeria*. Unpublished Ph.D. thesis, University of Aberdeen.
- Boucherit, A. (2002). *L'Arabe Parlé a Alger*. ANEP edition HD Thesis. Aberdeen University.
- Boukardoun, A. (2017). *Lexical Innovations among Youngsters in Tipaza: A Sociolinguistic Investigation*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Tlemcen, Tlemcen, Alegria.
- Boukhatem, A. & Chouaou, H.(2015). *Adaptation of Borrowed Words from French Language into Algerian Dialects: Case Study of Tlemcen Speech Community* (Unpublished master's thesis).University of Tlemcen, Tlemcen, Algeria.
- Boulanger, J. C. (1989). *L'évolution du concept de néologie de la linguistique aux industries de la langue*. In Actes du colloque" Terminologie diachronique (pp.193-211).
- Brahimi, F. (2000). *Loan Words in Algerian Berber in Arabic as a Minority Language*. (ed).Jonathan Owens. Mouton de Gruyter. New York.
- Cañete González, P. (2017).*Women and Men Facing Lexical Innovation*. Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal,19(2),219-233.
- Carver, G, M. (1987). *American Regional Dialects*. University of Michigan Press.
- Carvalho, A. (2004). *I speak like the guys on TV: Palatalization and the urbanization of Uruguayan Portuguese*. Language Variation and Change, pp.16.127–51.
- Chambers, J. K. (2003). *Sociolinguistic theory* (2nd ed.). Blackwell: Oxford.
- Chambers, J.K. Trudgill, P.(2004). *Dialectology* (2nd ed). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Clyne, M. (1967). *Transference and Triggering*. The Hague: Nijhoff.
- Coupland, N. (2009). *The Mediated Performance of Vernaculars*. Journal of English Linguistics. 37, 284–300.

- Coupland, N. (2009). *The Mediated Performance of Vernaculars*. *Journal of English Linguistics*. 37, 284–300.
- Copland, F. & Garton, S. & Richards, K. (2010). *Research Methods: Questionnaires*. Aston University's Blackboard. UK: Birmingham.
- Crystal, D. (2003), *English as a global language*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Derrouiche, S. & Djeziri, D. (2015). *Youth Innovations in Algerian Speech: Tlemcen's Youth*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Tlemcen, Tlemcen, Algeria.
- Dyer, J. (2007) *Language and Identity*. In Llamas, C. and Mullaney, L. and Stockwell, P. (Eds.) *The Routledge Companion to Sociolinguistics* (pp. 101-108). Abingdon, England and N.Y: Routledge.
- Eckert, P. & McConnell-Ginet, S. (2003). *Language and Gender*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Eckert, P. & Rickford, J. R. (eds.). (2001). *Style and Sociolinguistic Variation*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Ennaji, M. (1991). *Aspects of Multilingualism in Maghreb*. *International Journal of the society of Language*, 87: 7-25
- Eriksen, T. H. (2007). *Globalization: The key concepts*. Oxford: Berg.
- Fishman, J. (1967). *Bilingualism With and Without Diglossia; Diglossia With and Without Bilingualism*. *Journal of Social Issues*. New York, Association Press, 23:29- 138.
- Ferguson, C. (1959). *Diglossia*, *Word* 15:325–340.
- Fromkin, V. & Rodman, R. & Hyams, N. (2010). (9th ed.). *An Introduction to Language*. USA: Cengage Learning.
- Guilbert, L. (1975). *La créativité lexicale*, Coll. Langue et langage, Paris, Larousse.
- Gumperz, J. J. (1982). *Discourse Strategies*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Haugen, E. (1953). *The Norwegian Language in America: A Study of Bilingual Behavior*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.
- (1956). *Bilingualism in the Americas: A Bibliography and Research Guide*. Publications of the American Dialects Society 26.
-(1972).*The Ecology of Language*. California: Standford University Press.
- Hall, D. (2001). *Assessing the Needs of Bilingual Pupils: Living in Two Languages*. London : David Fulton.
- Herbert, S. (2001). *Code-Switching in Medieval English Poetry*. Language Contact in the History of English, ed. by Dieter Kastovsky & Arthur Mettinger, 305–335. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.
- Hockett, C, F. (1950). *Age Grading and linguistic continuity in Language* .26,449-57.
- Holmes, J. (1992). *An introduction to sociolinguistics*. London : Longman.
- (2000). *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics*. Longman, 2nd Edition.
-(2001). *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics* (2nd ed.). England: Pearson.
-(2013). *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics* (4th ed.). London: Pearson.
- Holes, C. (2004). *Modern Arabic Structures, Functions, and Varieties*. Washington, D. C:Georgetown University Press.
- Hornby, A. S. (2005). *Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary*. Oxford University.
- Hudson, J. (1998). *Perspectives on Fixedness, Applied and Theoretical*. Lund: Lund University Press.
- Hudson, R. A. (1996). *Sociolinguistics*. 2nd ed, Cambridge : Cambridge University Press.
- Jones, M, C & Esch, E. (2002). *Language Change : The Interplay of Internal, External and Extra-linguistic Factors*. NY : Mouton de Cryter.
- Kaye, A. S. (1970). *Modern Standard Arabic and Colloquials Lingua*, 24: 374-391.

- Keller, R. (1994). *On Language Change: The Invisible Hand in Language*. London, New York: Routledge.
- Kotsinas, U. (1997). *Young People's Language. Norm, Variation and Language Change*.
In Falk, Johan u.a. (Hg.): *Norm, Variation and Change in Language*. Stockholm: Almqvist & Wiksell.
- Labov, W. (1972a). *The Logic of Nonstandard English*. In *Language in the Inner City: Studies in The Black English Vernacular*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.
- (1990). *The intersection of sex and social class in the course of linguistic change*. *Language Variation and Change*.
-(2001). *Principles of Linguistic Change*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Lakoff, R. (1975). *Language and Woman's Place*. New York : Harper & Row.
- Llach M.P.A. (2010) *Exploring the Role of Gender in Lexical Creations*. In: Catalán R.M.J. (eds) *Gender Perspectives on Vocabulary in Foreign and Second Languages*. Palgrave Macmillan, London.
- Lyons, J. (1981). *Language and Linguistics: An Introduction*. Cambridge University Press.
- Mair, C. (2006). *Twentieth-Century English. History, Variation, and Standardization*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Marçais, W. (1961) *La diglossie arabe. L'Enseignement public*. Paris: Delagrave, n°12, déc. 1930, repris dans *Articles et conférences*. Paris: Adrien Maisonneuve, 83-88.
- Milroy, L. Muysken, P. (1995). *One Speaker Two Languages: Cross-Disciplinary Perspectives on Code Switching*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Mokhtar, K. (2018.April 25). *The Linguistic Friction in Algeria. Med Crave*. *Sociology International Journal*, (2):134–140.
- Mokhtar, K. (2015). *The Emergence of Educated Spoken Arabic in Algeria*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Oran, Oran, Algeria.

- Mouhadjer, N. (2002). *Algeria an Intricate Bilingual and Diglossic Situation*. University of Tlemcen : Tlemcen. Algeria.
- Myers-Scotton, C. (1993b). *Social Motivations for Code switching: Evidence from Africa*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Newmark, P. (1988). *A Textbook of Translation*. New York: Prentice-Hall International.
- Nunan, D. & Bailey, K.M. (2009). *Exploring Second Language Classroom Research: A Comprehensive Guide*. Boston: Cengage Learning, Inc.
- Oakes, J. (2008). *Algeria : British Library Cataloguing*: Bradt Travel Guides Ltd.
- Ormrod (1995). *What is Language?* Academia.Edu journal.
- Özüörçün, F. (2014). *Language Varieties: Pidgins and Creoles*. EUL Journal of Social Sciences.vol.2. LAÜ Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi. European University of Lefke.
- Peterson, E. & Coltrane, B. (2003). *Culture in Second Language Teaching*. Centre for Applied Linguistics.
- Pierce and Eplin (1995). *What is Language?* Academia.Edu journal.
- Poplack, S. (1980). *Sometimes I'll Start a Sentence in Spanish Y TERMINO EN ESPANOL: toward a Typology of Code Switching*. *Linguistics* 18: 581-618
- Romaine, S. (1989). *Bilingualism*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- (2000). *Language in Society An Introduction to Sociolinguistics*. (2nd ed).Oxford :Oxford University Press
- (2002). *Multilingualism*, in Mark Aronoff and Janie Rees -Miler(eds).
- Sablayrolles, J. F. (Ed.). (2003). *L'innovation lexicale* (Vol. 11). Honoré Champion.

- Sankoff, G. (2004). *Adolescents, Young Adults and the Critical Period: Two Case Studies from ‘Seven Up’*. In Fought C (ed.) *Sociolinguistic variation: Critical Reflections* (pp.121–139). Oxford & New York: Oxford University Press.
- Sarah G. Thomason. (2001). *Language Contact*. Edinburgh University Press Ltd, pp159.
- Saussure, F. (1915/1959). *Cours de Linguistique Générale*. Paris, Payot.
- Seliger, H. Shohamy, E. (1989). *Second Language Research*. Oxford: Oxford University Press
 Spolsky, B. (1998). *Sociolinguistics*. UK: Oxford University.
- Sridhar, K (1996). *Code-switching*. Lee, S & Hornberger, N (Eds.). *Sociolinguistics and Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 55-70.
- Tagliamonte, S.(2012). *Variationist Sociolinguistics: Change, Observation, Interpretation*. Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Todd, L. (1974). *Pidgin and Creole* by Routledge and Kegan Paul Ltd. 3rd Ed. Taylor and Francis e-Library, 2005 .
- Trudgill, P. (1972). *Sex, Covert Prestige and Linguistic Change in the Urban British English of Norwich*. *Language in Society*.
- Trudgill, P. (1992). *Introducing Language and Society*. London: Penguin Books Ltd.
- Versteegh, K. (2008), *Non-Indo-European Pidgins and Creoles*, Kouwenberg, S. and Singler, J. V. (eds), *The Handbook of Pidgin and Creole Studies*, Blackwell Publishing, UK.
- Weinreich, M.(1945). *YIVO and the Problem of Our Time*. *YIVO- bleter*. 25 (1).Education.
- Weinreich,U.(1968). *Languages in Contact: Finding and Problems*. Paris: Moulon Publisher.
- Wardhaugh, R. (2002). *Pidgins and Creoles, An Introduction to Sociolinguistics* (4th ed). Blackwell Publishing.
-(2006). *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics*. Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

Yule, G. (1985). *The Study of language* (1st ed). Cambridge University Press.

Zimmerman, D. H. & C. West (1975). *Sex Roles, Interruptions and Silences in Conversation*. In Thorne and Henry (1975).

Appendices

Appendix I

Questionnaire

Dear students,

The present questionnaire is our research tool for the fulfillment of Master degree on lexical innovation among the younger generation speech in Tiaret. Your contribution is of a vital significance to the achievement of such study. We will be so appreciative to seeing you answering duly the following questions.

1-Gender: Male Female

2- Age :.....

3- Do you think that old and young people speech is different?

- Yes
- No

4-Do you use new words or expressions in daily conversations, like artist, annouch , saroukh, 3ando chekara....etc ?

- Yes
- No

If yes, give examples.....
.....

5- Why do you use new words?

- To be humorous.....
- To look different
- To imitate
- To sound fashionable.....
- To cope with globalization.....
- To break the routine.....
- Other reasons.....

6- Where do new words come from? (you can select more than one answer)

- Arabic
- French
- English
- others

7-: What are some words specific to boys or girls' gender? Use (+/-)

Words	Boys	Girls	Gloss
[baqlaawa]	-	+	Handsome boy

8-How often do you use new words in each of the following situations?

Where?When?Withwhom?	Never	seldom	Often	Always
At home with siblings(brother& sister) and other teenagers				
At home with adults; including parents				
At university only with friends / peers				
At socialmedia (Face book, Instagram , whatsapp...etc)				
With people you do not know				
Only interacting with girls(peers)				
Only interacting with boys(peers)				
With both boys and girls				

9-Do social networks help in coining new words?

• Yes

• No

If yes, How ?

.....

10. Have you ever been in a situation where you were asked to translate new Words you use?

• Yes

• No

If yes , like what ?.....

Comment: Are there any additional comments you want to add concerning new words used by your generation?

.....
.....
.....

Thank you for your collaboration and understanding

Appendix II

Word List

How do you say these words in your style? Use more than one word if possible. (Write in Arabic or French)

N	Meaning	Suggested Word	Informants' suggestions
1	Well dressed	[artist]	
2	I do not have money	[ħaʔba]	
3	To have fun	[tbahlil]	
4	Old-fashioned	[dimuudi]	
5	A rich man	[fahʃuʃ]	
6	To buy and sell	[nbaznas]	
7	Meet on Facebook	[nfeisboki]	
8	A stupid student	[ħaabas]	
9	Your friend	[ʃriki]	
10	Money	[ħabbæt]	

Résumé

Dans le cadre de la sociolinguistique, L'innovation lexicale chez les jeunes a été un sujet qui a inspiré les chercheurs, en ce sens que les nouveaux mots varient selon les frontières régionales et les variables sociales, principalement l'âge et le sexe. Le présent ouvrage met à l'étude les productions linguistiques novatrices de la jeunesse parmi les étudiants de l'université de Tiaret. L'objectif de cette recherche est de déterminer dans quelle mesure les adolescents inventent de nouveaux mots et d'identifier les motifs qui mènent à l'innovation linguistique. Les résultats de cette recherche démontrent que l'utilisation de nouveaux mots par les jeunes dans leurs conversations quotidiennes et délibérée, c'est-à-dire qu'elle est due à un certain nombre de raisons ainsi qu'au rôle apparent des médias sociaux et à l'ère de la mondialisation qui ne peut être ignorée dans la diffusion de ces mots et expressions

Mots- clés : Innovation Lexicale, Changement de langue ,Jeunes, Age, Sexe , Néologisme

ملخص

يعد الابتكار اللغوي لدى الشباب موضوعا يلقى اهتمام الباحثين ، في إطار علم اللغة الاجتماعي، حيث أن الكلمات الجديدة تختلف حسب طبيعة الحدود الإقليمية و المتغيرات الاجتماعية، خاصة العمر و الجنس ،هدفت هذه الدراسة إلى معرفة الانتاجات اللغوية المبتكرة من قبل طلاب جامعة تيارت، حيث تركز على استكشاف مدى قيام المراهقين بصياغة كلمات جديدة و تحديد الدوافع المؤدية إلى الابتكار اللغوي ، و قد أدلت النتائج إلى أن الشباب مبدع لغويا ولديه هدف من توظيف هذه التعابير المبتكرة في محادثاته اليومية و هذا يرجع إلى عدة أسباب من بينها تأثير وسائل التواصل الاجتماعي و العولمة التي لا يمكن تجاهلها في نشر هذه الكلمات و العبارات

الكلمات المفتاحية: الابتكار اللغوي، التغير اللغوي، الشباب، السن، الجنس، اللفظ الجديد